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ABSTRACT

The annual issue of the journal of the Hong Kong Teachers Association includes these articles: "The Time Management Issue of Tertiary Students: An Investigation of Tuition Conductors in Singapore" (Tai Chee Wong, Jessie Yuk Yong Wong); "The Analysis of the Phenomena of Parkinson in Course of School Management" (Ying Xiu Yang) (in Chinese); "Zero Tolerance Policy in the United States Public School System--Response of School Social Work" (Lina Fong); "Analysis of the Undertaking of the Family Education in the Mainland of China Since the Reform and Opening" (Feng Luo) (in Chinese); "Future Development and Characteristics of Science Curricula in Hong Secondary and Primary Schools" (Sing Lai Chan, Kevin Chung Wai Lui) (in Chinese); "Implementing Language Teaching Innovations in Hong Kong: The Case of the Bridge Program" (Ngar Fun Liu, Laurence Goldstein); "The Impact of Disseminated School-Based Curriculum Materials on Hong Kong Schools" (Yiu Chun Lo); "The Characteristics of the Use of Chinese Characters and Words in Writing by Primary School Pupils in Zhejiang of China" (Shek Kam Tse, Xin Hua Zhu) (in Chinese); "Hong Kong's Secondary School Textbooks on Chinese History Should Absorb Fresh Historical Research Findings" (Jun Fang) (in Chinese); "Language Learning and the Mother Tongue: A Personal Experience" (Ruth Emilie Hayhoe); "Sun Zi's 'The Art of War': Applications for the Classroom" (Loi Soh Loi, Jack Cheng Chuah Teo); "Learning Experiences of Overseas Non-English Speaking Background Students: A Case Study of an Australian University" (Tammy Kwan, Tommy Tang); and "A Developmental Profile of New Horizons in Education" (William Y. Wu, Kwok Keung Ho). (MSE)

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ED 429 454

NEW HORIZONS
In Education

No. 39 November 1998

教育曙光

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第三十九期
一九九八年十一月

香港教師會
教育學報

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION
HONG KONG TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

香 港 教 師 會

香港教師會於一九三四年成立，以促進教育同工之間的密切合作，提高教育專業人員的地位，維護會員的權益，增進會員的福利，加強國際間的了解為宗旨。香港教師會除了是本港一個教育團體外，同時亦是多個國際性組織的會員，如世界教師專業組織聯合會及國際閱讀協會會員。

香港教師會的週年學術活動有：(一)教育研究大會，如一九九六年舉辦的「高效能教學與實踐」研究大會，一九九七年舉辦的「優質教育新挑戰：愉快的教與學」研究大會，及一九九八年舉辦的「質素保證視學如何提升學校教育質素？」研究大會等；(二)本地教育專題研討會，如一九九〇年至一九九七年間舉辦的「幼稚園、小學與中學的銜接研討會」、「特殊學校音樂教育研討會」、「如何為成績稍遜的學生提供有效學習研討會」、「教室管理的科學與藝術」及「母語教學問題及解決方法研討會」等；(三)定期出版教育曙光。近年舉辦的國際學術活動，則有一九九二年主辦的「我們的下一代大陸、台灣、香港、澳門基礎教育研討會」、一九九四年協辦在台北舉行的「世界經濟發展中，海峽兩岸暨港澳地區全民教育發展之展望」學術研討會、一九九五年在上海第三屆海峽兩岸暨港澳地區教育學術研討會、一九九七年第四屆海峽兩岸暨港澳地區由澳門舉辦（跨世紀教師隊伍的建設）的教育學術研討會，及一九九八年主辦第三屆東北亞教育論壇。

教 育 曙 光

*教育曙光*是一份香港教師會出版的教育學報，每期邀請專家評審；每年十一月出版，分發全港幼稚園、小學、中學及大專院校。

*教育曙光*以促進專業發展與教學實踐為宗旨，每期約刊登具實踐和研究價值的文章。文章的範疇包括專題探討本港當前教育問題的剖析、教學、輔導及學校行政的研究，教育新趨勢和新意念的介紹等。

歡迎教師、學校行政人員、輔導工作者、教育學者及研究人員投稿，詳情請參閱每期刊登的徵稿啟示。

*教育曙光*歡迎各教育機構免費訂閱，請將訂閱表格及郵費寄來香港教師會。

HONG KONG TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

The Hong Kong Teachers' Association (HKTA), founded in 1934, aims at developing close cooperation among educational workers, promoting the professional status of teachers, protecting the rights and improving the welfare of its members and strengthening international understanding of teacher organizations. Apart from being a Hong Kong-based educational body, HKTA is also a member of international organizations such as Education International and the International Reading Association.

The academic activities of HKTA include: (1) the annual education conference, such as the 1996 Conference on Effective Teaching and Practice, the 1997 Conference on New Challenge of Quality Education: Pleasurable and Effective Teaching and Learning, and the 1998 Conference on Promoting Quality Assurance Inspection and School Quality; (2) Seminars on local educational issues such as: "Continuity in Preschool, Primary and Secondary Education", "Music Education in Special Schools", "Effective Learning for the Less Able Students", "The Science and Arts of Classroom Management" and "Seminars on the Problems and Solutions of Mother-Tongue Teaching", which took place in 1990-1997; and (3) the publication of New Horizons in Education. In 1992, HKTA is proud to be the chief organizer and the host for The First Educational Conference of China, Taiwan, Hong Kong & Macau, with the theme "Education for our Children: Basic Education". Since then, HKTA has actively participated in the Second, Third and Fourth Educational Conference of China, Taiwan, Hong Kong & Macau which took place in Taipei (1994), Shanghai (1995), and Macau (1997), with the themes on "The Prospects of the Development of Public Education", "Education in the Context of Global Economic Development", and "The Development of Teacher Team Across the Century" respectively; and hosted the 1998 Third North-East Asia Teachers' Forum.

NEW HORIZONS IN EDUCATION

New Horizons is a refereed journal of education published annually in November by HKTA. It is distributed to kindergartens, primary and secondary schools and tertiary institutions in Hong Kong.

New Horizons is intended as a forum to stimulate and enhance professional development and practice in education. We publish papers that speak directly to practical school and classroom concerns as well as papers that are based on systematic inquiries into educational issues and practices, including those related to the announced theme(s). We also publish presentations of new developments and innovative ideas tried out in schools, in Hong Kong or elsewhere.

Submissions are invited from teachers, school administrators, persons with pastoral duties, educationists and researchers. General information about submissions can be found in the Call for Papers in each issue of the journal.

Free subscription to New Horizons is on an institutional basis. Institutions are required to send in a request from and pay the postage.

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編 者 語

今年是本刊豐收的一年，我們共收到42篇來稿，作者散佈於中國各省及其他國家、地區，經過雙重不記名的評審後，能夠接納的稿件不及一半，而能經過修訂後刊登的只有今期的15篇。本刊在過去數年中不斷邁向國際化，除了作者來自世界各地外，編問及評審名單也是一樣。這名單甚至也能在美國教育研究資源中心的光碟系統及在萬維網中（網址如下：http://www1.fed.cuhk.edu.hk/en/nh/nhindex.htm）閱讀本刊各期文章的摘要。

本刊今期來稿的評審期時平均約為六星期，最長的要六個月，最短的數天便可知道結果，主要視乎個別評審者的改革及合作程度。編者感力謝的（是多利評審名單過後要促

編者與Hong Kong Baptist Univ.的胡耀雄博士合作，將本刊過去卅七年的各期文章主題及作者編成相互參照的資料索引，希望能成為讀者更易、更迅速及更用本刊的模式

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From the Editor

This year is a fruitful year for our journal. We received a total of 42 manuscripts from authors around the world and China. After the double blind review process, about 43% of them were acceptable. However, only 15 authors could revise their manuscripts in time. Our journal is really becoming more international. Besides having authors from all over the world, the advisers and reviewers are also from different places: Australia, Canada, China (different provinces), Singapore, UK, USA. Of course, readers can get access to the abstracts of our past issues (starting from the 1967 issue) through the international data base ERIC or the Internet (http://www1.fed.cuhk.edu.hk/en/nh/nhindex.htm).

The average reviewing period was about 6 weeks in this issue, actual time ranging from several days to 20 weeks, mainly depended on individual reviewer's cooperation.

Dr. William Wu of the Hong Kong Baptist University and the editor worked together to produce a composite profile of the 1961-97 issue of this journal. Readers can cross reference articles in this journal through the author and the subject index easily.

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教　育　曙　光

第三十九期・一九九八年十一月

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The Time Management Issue of Tertiary Students: An Investigation of Tuition Conductors in Singapore

Wong Tai-Chee **Wong Yuk Yong, Jessie**

National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

Time management is a practical skill that is applicable to both the business world and schools. Providing private tuition is a large formal and informal business in Singapore. It is quite common that tertiary students of the National Institute of Education in Singapore conduct tuition while studying to earn their degree. This study aims to investigate a few characteristic issues in relation to tertiary students' response to strong market demand for private tuition to lower-grade learners. These issues include:

Why do tertiary students conduct tuition?

How do they manage their time as conducting tuition for extra income conflicts with their studies?

The study shows that conducting tuition is largely seen by tertiary students as useful towards preparing their future career as a teacher. Surprisingly, though tuition-conducting takes away students' time from studies, it does not affect their academic performance. This essentially reflects the ability of tuition-conducting students to manage their time between a part-time work and study.

新加坡大專生教補習與分配學習時間的調查研究

無論在商場還是學術環境，妥善分配時間都是一項實用的技能。在新加坡，為大學生補習賺錢的活動已經變成一門龐大的正式與非正式生意。

大專生在大學期間為人授徒補習，是常見的事。本文目的是探討大專生為滿足市場需求而大批教補習的某些特徵。這些問題有關的問題如下：

大專生為什麼為人授徒補習賺錢？

當他們為人授徒補習花去大量的讀書時間，他們又如何分配時間呢？

調查結果顯示，大專生普遍認為教補習對他們將來當教師有幫助。意想不到的是，雖然補習用去他們的時間，他們的學業成績並未受影響，這基本上說明了他們具有妥善處理時間的一定能力。

Introduction

Private tuition in Singapore was meant for weak students from better-off families in the 1950s and 1960s. Today with a more affluent society, private tuition has become a flourishing industry. In a 'confucianist' society where education is highly valued, complemented by the government's policy which rewards high achievers handsomely, demand for private tuition has surged in the last two decades, despite children's relatively heavy load from their own schools. In 1992, according to a newspaper survey, over one-third of Singapore's primary school to university students took private tuition, accounting for a turnover of $260 million. Many engaged a tutor to gain an extra edge for their children so that they could be admitted to established schools and eventually enter a tertiary institution (Straits Times, 13 April 1992; NTUC Income, 1997: 20).

There are, however, two layers of tuition business. Tuition centres belong to the formal sector whilst private tuition offered by private individuals, practically on a door-to-door service, is the largest 'informal sector' in Singapore. The latter sector is believed to be the most important source of tertiary level students to earn extra income by conducting tuition courses to lower-grade learners whilst studying for a degree or diploma. What makes this trade handy is its time flexibility where tutors have little problem to negotiate a suitable time with parents who provide financial support for their children's tuition.

This paper is a case study that investigates if there are adverse effects on the performance of Singapore tertiary students who conduct private tuition for extra income. Hitherto, no study has been done to evaluate such effects. The study examines whether students who give tuition are able to manage their time between academic work and

conducting tuition. Study samples were taken from Singapore students of the National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, the sole teacher-training institution in Singapore. In investigating whether any impacts on the performance of private tuition givers, this study focuses on two key issues:

a) Why do students conduct tuition?

b) Does working as private tutors affect the academic performance of tuition-conducting students, given its conflicts in sharing time between part-time work and studies?

1. Time Management and Study

Time management is a practical skill applicable to both the business world and schools. Mishra and Misra (1987) view the object of time management is to increase and optimise the use of one's discretionary time. They identify some major areas by which task performance may be improved through effective management of time. These comprise the habitual use of time, setting goals and priorities, and avoiding procrastination.

Habits are cultural in character and can be inherited. Learning to control one's time involves basically changing one's habits to a more effective use of time. Planning time by setting goals and dividing them into long and short-term objectives is very important in time management. Learning to emphasise two or three major things which one wishes to accomplish instead of doing bits and pieces of everything is an important aspect in life. To prioritise involves planning which is necessary in allocating time more efficiently. Finally, procrastination is often a problem of those students who fail to act to whatever that has been planned for. Pushing or postponing assignments, for example, is a direct consequence of ineffective time management.

A number of other researchers, Race (1992), Kahn (1989), Walter and Siebert (1981), and Pauk (1989) also agree that organising work and budgeting time are the first steps towards time management and study success. Pauk, however, argues that students should learn time management skills so that they know how to control time. He also sees self-discipline an indispensable component in mastering time and scheduling time to gain time. It is therefore obvious that those holding part-time jobs who probably have less time and less energy for their studies need to organise their time more rigorously than others.

Time management is an issue seldom addressed to tertiary students in Singapore. Student teachers at the National Institute of Education have to rely on their life experiences and prior knowledge in managing their study time at the Institute. It is felt that this issue should be at the top of the list of skills that students need to learn. If this issue is properly addressed, students' passing rates could be enhanced in future. Having discussed some basic principles essential for improved management of time, attention is focused on an empirical study that relates time management skills with students' academic performance.

2. The Survey Method

The survey covered two programmes: Years 1 to 4 of the BA with Dip Ed and Years 1 to 2 of Dip Ed at the Institute of National Education. A total of 236 students majoring in geography were surveyed in the course of Semester 1, 1996/97. It is considered that the coverage, though merely that of the geography discipline, is representative of the whole Institution, given its wide range across different levels of study. Additionally, the sample size that made up 18.5 percent of the total number of students in the two programmes can be seen as highly reliable in a survey using a stratified sampling method.

The questionnaire designed for the survey aimed to cover the following information:

a) Students' background.

b) Reasons for conducting tuition and not conducting tuition.

c) Tuition characteristics and income of tuition-conducting students.

d) Whether the academic performance of tuition-conducting students is affected by time allocated to such purpose.

Students' background that indicates students' source of financial support provides useful information as to why they need to conduct tuition. Interviewees were grouped under two categories of students for analysis: those conducting tuition and not conducting. In each category, students had to indicate their average grade in the previous year's results. This helps in comparing eventually if conducting tuition have any effects on their academic performance. The questionnaires were processed and analysed using the SPSS programme.

Background of Surveyed Students

Among the cohort of students surveyed, all of them received some kind of financial support for their study. Among the BA students, the salary scheme offered by the Ministry of Education (MOE) to Year 1 students starting in July 1997 is more generous than to those in Years 2 to 4, following a policy readjustment aimed at attracting young Singaporeans to the teaching profession. As Table 1 shows, all 30 BA Year 1 belonged to that category. Dip Ed students' package was close to those in BA Years 2 to 4. Scholarship recipients from the Ministry of Education enjoy four years of financial support whereas BA bursary recipients have to self-finance from Year 3 onwards. The great variety in students' background including status of financial support explains, as we see later, the diverse reasons given by students as to why they gave private tuition.

Table 1: Distribution of Survey Sample and Source of Support

Programme	MOE Scholarship	MOE Bursary	MOE Salary	Others	Total Surveyed	Total in %
Dip. Ed. Year 1			76		76	32.2
Dip. Ed. Year 2		26	3		29	12.3
BA & Dip. Ed. Year 1			30		30	12.7
BA & Dip. Ed. Year 2	10	11	1		22	9.3
BA & Dip. Ed. Year 3	36	5		1	42	17.8
BA & Dip. Ed. Year 4	15	22			37	15.7
Total	61	64	110	1	236	100.0

Source: NIE classroom survey, 1996

3. The Analysis of Study

Out of 236 surveyed, 77.5 percent were female students and 22.5 percent male students. One hundred and nineteen (50.4 percent) admitted that they conducted tuition. For both BA and Dip Ed programmes, the tuition-conducting rate rose with higher level of study. More established and senior students allocated more time for tuition (Table 2). The rate was exceptionally low in the case of BA Year 1 students, only 20 percent, a likely reflection of the effect of the new salary scheme which pays a considerably higher stipend to new comers with effect from the academic year 1996/97. This suggests that BA Year 1 students with more disposable income are less eager to earn extra income by conducting tuition. One other noteworthy element was that this BA Year 1 cohort had a higher proportion of male students (37 percent), probably suggesting that the chance in tuition-conducting, largely seen as 'feminist profession' tends to decline.

Table 2: Distribution of Tuition-Conducting Students by Programme

Programme	Conducting Tuition (%)	Not Conducting Tuition (%)	Total Surveyed	% of Total
Dip. Ed. Year 1	39.5	60.5	76	32.2
Dip. Ed. Year 2	58.6	41.4	29	12.3
BA & Dip. Ed. Year 1	20.0	80.0	30	12.7
BA & Dip. Ed. Year 2	50.0	50.0	22	9.3
BA & Dip. Ed. Year 3	71.4	28.6	42	17.8
BA & Dip. Ed. Year 4	67.6	32.4	37	15.7
Total	50.4	49.6	236	100.0

Source: NIE classroom survey, 1996

Characteristics of Tuition-Conducting

The majority (61.3 percent) of tuition-conducting students, however, had one to two students only (Table 3). Close to 80 percent taught four or less students whilst one-fifth were responsible for five or more. This shows clearly that most students gave tuition for 'pocket money'. Only a few depended on it as an important income source to meet their monthly expenses.

Table 3: Number of Tutee Students

NIE Students-conducting Tuition	Number in %	No. of Tutee Students
73	61.3	1-2
22	18.5	3-4
5	4.2	5-6
19	16.0	7 or more
119	100.0	Total

Source: NIE classroom survey, 1996

As high as 37 percent of student teachers surveyed said they had been conducting tuition for over three years, an indication that many in fact had started from BA Year 1 or even before they enrolled in the University. Close to two-thirds of students tuitioned three to eight hours per week (two-thirds from BA Years 3 and 4). About one-fifth tuitioned less than three hours as compared with slightly less than one-fifth worked more than nine hours. On the whole, tuition-conducting did not appear to take away much time from students. However, the frequency of travel was high. Forty-seven percent indeed tuitioned twice a week, and 35 percent

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travelled at least three times weekly (BA Years 3 and 4 accounted for half). Consequently, the amount of total time consumed including travel time to and from the tutee families could be quite substantial. Given the fact that both the tutors and tutees are committed to learning in the daytime of the weekdays, private tuition was predominantly done either in the night time in the weekdays or in the day time on Saturdays and Sundays. Again, BA Years 3 and 4 had a much stronger preference to arrange tutoring during weekends (over 70 percent) than other students (40 percent or less).

Reasons for Conducting Tuition

Reasons given by interviewees as to why they tuitioned varied. As can be seen from Table 4, more than half claimed that they needed tuition to supplement their scholarship or bursary, in particular those from BA Year 3 and 4. Dip Ed students appear to come more from poorer families. Many tuitioned to help their parents to meet family expenses. Saving for holidays was widely acknowledged, though not a prime motive.

Table 4: Reasons of Conducting Tuition

Programme	Supplement Scholarship Bursary	Support Parents	Save of Holidays	Others	Total	Total in %
Dip Ed Year 1	12	4	3	10	29	24.6
Dip Ed Year 2	6	6		5	17	14.4
BA & Dip Ed Year 1	2		2	2	6	5.1
BA & Dip Ed Year 2	6		2	3	11	9.3
BA & Dip Ed Year 3	21	2	2	5	30	25.4
BA & Dip Ed Year 4	19		1	3	25	21.2
Total	66	12	12	28	118	100.0
Total in %	55.9	10.2	23.7	23.7		100.0

Source: NIE classroom survey, 1996

Reasons of Not Conducting Tuition

Most respondents said they did not tuition because they had adequate financial resource provided by MOE (34.2 percent), or they needed more time to learn (43.6 percent), as shown in Table 5. Some received extra pocket money from parents, especially the younger Years 1 and 2 students. A few earned some income as part-time workers.

Table 5: Reasons of Not Conducting Tuition

Programme	Adequate with MOE Funding	Supported by Parents	Part-Time Work/ Other Income	Need More Time to Study	Others	Total	Total in %
Dip Ed Year 1	12	5	4	25	1	46	39.3
Dip Ed Year 2	6	3	1	1	1	12	10.3
BA & Dip Ed Year 1	9	4		11		24	20.5
BA & Dip Ed Year 2	6	1		4		11	9.4
BA & Dip Ed Year 3	4	2	1	5		12	10.2
BA & Dip Ed Year 4	3	1	1	5		12	10.3
Total	40	16	8	51	2	117	100.0
Total in %	34.2	13.4	5.1	43.6	1.7		100.0

Source: NIE classroom survey, 1996

Monthly Income from Conducting Tuition

Income from tuition was supplementary in nature. As shown in Table 6, there were exceptionally few cases where tutors earned more than $800 a month. Nearly three-quarters made $400 or less, typically those from Dip Ed Year 1 whose academic qualification was lowest. A quarter (22.7 percent) earned between $400 and $800. Money earned was usually spent on daily expenses such as commuting transport, lunch, stationery, entertainment, gift etc. It was a common complaint among BA.

Years 3 and 4 of their tight budget derived from MOE scholarship and bursary. Tuition income helps obviously some students in a way to raise their purchase power, and provide them access occasionally to 'luxurious' items, such as buying or sharing gifts for celebrating friends' birthday anniversary.

Table 6: Monthly Income from Tuition

Programme	$200 or less	$201-$400	$401-$600	$601-$800	$801 or more	Total	Total in %
Dip Ed Year 1	21	7	2			30	25.2
Dip Ed Year 2	4	8	3	1	1	17	14.3
BA & Dip Ed Year 1	1	5				6	5.0
BA & Dip Ed Year 2	6	3	2			11	9.2
BA & Dip Ed Year 3	7	9	8	4	2	30	25.2
BA & Dip Ed Year 4	6	9	6	3	3	25	21.0
Total	45	41	19	8	6	119	100.0
Total in %	37.8	34.5	16.0	6.7	5.0		100.0

Source: NIE classroom survey, 1996

4. Discussions and Findings

In theory, the amount of time which students' spend on conducting tuition involves an opportunity cost in that less time is available for learning. Under fixed available time conditions, students' learning results should correspond with the extent of time dedicated to their studies (Anderson (ed), 1984). Where distortion to this logic occurs, explanations are necessary as the basis to the understanding of such a phenomenon.

Time Management Conflict between Conducting Tuition and Studies

In his geographical time-space analysis, Torsten Hagerstrand's (see Carstein, Parkes and Thrift 1978) illustrates about human limitations in their time allocation ability. Among the many basic conditions which affects human individuals and society, he identifies the following features:

a) The indivisibility of the human being.
b) The limited ability of the human being (and many other indivisible entities) to take part in more than one task at a time.
c) Every activity or task has a duration.
d) Any movement between points in space consumes time.
e) Every situation is inevitably rooted in past situations.

Item e) needs further illustration here in that present and past situations are linked in one way or another. Consequently, in performing an activity, one needs to spend time to link it with the previous actions. Overall time available is hence shared between the old and the new actions, leading to a reduced disposable time to perform the new action. With this in mind, attention is centred on whether tuition-conducting actually has affected students' academic performance.

Whether Conducting Tuition Affects Academic Results

When student tutors were asked if conducting tuition had affected their studies at the NIE, 59 percent of respondents disagreed, in particular the Dip Ed students. Only about 18 percent concurred whilst the remaining 23 percent were not sure. From our survey, tuition-conducting students' academic performance was generally better than non-tuition conducting students, as shown in Table 7. The grade distribution of tuition-conducting is typical of that of Geography Division, NIE, and can be considered a reliable one. Of the large number who did not specify the previous year's overall grade, most were Dip Ed Year 1 and BA Year 1 students. They were unable to provide this information as they were unregistered with the University in the previous year.

The above results indicate that tuition conductors out-performed the non-tuition conductors. There is some distortion from the time-space logic in time allocation, if assumption is made that both groups of students enjoy similar terms and conditions. In view of this distortion, there are some implications in terms of time management in their handling of daily activities. These implications are:

a) Tuition givers see study as a priority as well as tuition-conducting which provides them with extra income which they need. As such, time planning is more carefully carried out in order to balance these two priority activities. Moreover, time spent on tuition-conducting as the whole is not excessive.
b) Non-tuition givers are believed to have a less rigorous daily time schedule. Understandably, their time management is looser than tuition-givers, and they enjoy more leisure hours than tuition-givers either in weekend outing or in watching television programmes at night.

Table 7: Average Grade Scored by Students in Academic Year 1995/96

Average Grade	Tuition-Conducting Students	Non-Tuition Conducting Student	Total No. Of Inter Students
A	1		1
B	26	20	46
C	54	27	81
D	2	1	3
Unspecified*	36	69	105
Total No. of Student	**119**	**117**	**236**

Source: NIE classroom survey, 1996

* Mostly BA Year 1 and Dip Ed Year 1 student

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Other Findings

Distribution of tuition-conducting students by level

Among the BA students, the proportion of tuition-conducting students were much higher in Years 3 and 4 (around 70 percent) as compared to BA Year 1 students (one in five). There could be two reasons accounting for this difference. First, the Year 1 students were less settling than their seniors, and were therefore less prepared to conduct tutoring. Second, the Year 1 students enjoy a new package, which offers them a full salary scheme, and allows them to live more comfortably without resorting to conducting tuition for extra income. The latter appears to be a much stronger explanation than the first one. In other words, the new salary package offered by the Ministry of Education to attract youngsters to the teaching profession has enabled students to be more financially independent. But whether they will perform better in their studies is yet to be investigated.

Level of tuition and perception of teaching as a future profession

Three-quarters of 119 interviewees said they tutored primary school students only. Whilst less than one-fifth taught secondary school students, a few taught a mixed level of primary and secondary school students. Over 90 percent claimed that they taught subjects related to their two majoring subjects at NIE. In responding to whether conducting tuition helped them to prepare for their teaching career, more than 80 percent perceived so. Overall, three-quarters or more of the surveyed students of different levels were firm that they had chosen correctly teaching as their future career. Commitment to teaching was particularly strong among Dip Ed students (over 90 percent). An explanation to Dip Ed students' stronger commitment to teaching could be attributable to the fact that

a) Quite a number were mid-career changers.

b) Most students had poorer A level results than the BA students, which means their job options were narrower than the latter group.

Limitations

The questionnaire survey did not cover details on how interviewees spent their time such as the number of hours daily allocated to their study. Actual time planning was not a targeted issue in the study which otherwise would have been useful in comparing the academic performance of tuition conductors and non-tuition conductors in the effectiveness of time allocations. Another point the study might have overlooked is that students' historical academic records were not surveyed. A longer record data would provide a greater depth of understanding whether the currently better students were also better students in the past before they even started tutoring for extra income. Should that be the case, there is evidence of a strong continuity in study performance to add in the data analysis.

Private Tuition in Singapore, Where Will It Go From Here?

Tuition centres and private tuition by individuals have both performed their social function by assisting students to score better grades as schools are highly examination-oriented. As long as examination grades remain the admission yardstick for further studies, and the basis in employment recruitment exercise, private tuition will stay as a vigorous activity in Singapore. Indeed, private tuition has been seen by the government as a supplement to formal school teaching in strengthening students' weak areas and as a means to upgrade their skills contributing to Singapore's performance in the currently competitive global market in which the city-state is strongly integrated (see Straits Times, 3 Jan 1993 and 21 Jan 1995). All three community-based government-led services (Chinese Development Assistance Council, Singapore Indian Development Association and the Malay community's Mendaki) have, since 1992, set up tuition centres to help under-achievers in their own community to perform better in schools. Or at least to make students 'examination smart' (refer to BG Lee Hsien Loong's comments on currently 'exam smart' 'O' and 'A' levels students in the Straits Times, 29 May 1996).

With current emphasis on creative thinking in schools, private tuition will need to assume a new role in tutoring if it is to survive because tutors can no longer rely on '10 past-year series', for instance, to ensure tutees will perform well. Assessment methods of creativity will surely change the scenario of the current tuition world. Can private tutors fulfil the requirement? According to Dr de Bono, a specialist in creative thinking, creativity is a technique, the human brain can be trained as a self-organising system to information to solve problems creatively (Straits Times, 27 July 1996). Be that as it may, this part-time informal activity as private tutors for tertiary students to earn extra income is likely to stay so long as its demand remains strong.

Conclusions

Emphasis on education and examination results in Singapore has bolstered the growth of private tuition in Singapore in the past three decades. There is an implicit concurrence between parents and the government in their view that tuition in addition to formal school education is useful. While parents hope to gain an extra edge for their children, the government aims to upgrade weaker students and equip them with necessary basic skills. Strong demand for private tuition has encouraged tertiary students to offer their service and earn an extra income.

This empirical study discovers that the reasons why tertiary students conduct tutoring are varied. About half of the students in the surveyed Institution (National Institute of Education) conduct tutoring. Most students do so for 'pocket money' to supplement their scholarship or bursary whilst the others use the money for holidays, help their parents to meet daily expenses etc. Quite unexpectedly, tuition-conducting students' academic performance has generally been better than those who do not take up this part-time job. This is attributable to the fact that tutoring as a part-time job has not taken away much of their time. More significantly, their sensible time management skills and priority placed on balancing between a part-time work and study have enabled them to perform, with perhaps a sacrifice in enjoying less leisure hours than others.

Time management is an issue which has not yet captured great attention of tertiary students in Singapore. This issue, if properly addressed, will be able to help students' achieve better academic performance.

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中國大陸學校管理中的帕金森現象淺析

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學校管理中的帕金森現象是學校工作中的桎梏。本文旨揭示大陸學校管理中的帕金森現象之主，試圖分析存在這一現象的弊端，探討解決這一問題的出路，目的在于提高學校管理工作的效率。

The analysis of the phenomena of Parkinson in course of school management

The phenomena of Parkinson in course of school management is the shackles of school work. This passage tries to analyse the abuses of thephenomena and approach the way for solving the problem, by bring-ing to light the phenomena of Parkinson in the school management at home,so as to improve the efficiency of school management.

前言

提高學校管理工作效率是學校管理工作的價值體現。大陸學校管理的理論與實踐工作者十分重視這一問題的研究。然而受各種因素的影響，學校管理工作效率的提高並未如願以償。在眾多的影響學校管理工作效率的原因中，帕金森現象已成為學校管理中的頑症，困擾著學校管理工作的發展。

何為帕金森現象

帕金森（P.C. Parkinson）是英國著名政治家、歷史學家。1957年，他出版了《帕金森定律》（Parkinson's Law）一書（王惠岩,1986），書中揭示了資本主義社會行政組織的日益擴大與行政效率成反比的現律（李強,1989）。這一規律表現於七個方面：

（1）當行政主管工作忙時（不管是否真忙），總喜歡增加才能低於自己的下屬，而不願意增加與自己勢均力敵的對手。官多了，機關各級人員之間，彼此會製造出許多工作，結果人人都有事干，整體工作效率反而下降了。（2）行政機關成立的年代越久，組織中選拔的人才質量越低劣。因為行政主管只有選擇那些才能低於自己的人，才能避免製造職位上的競爭者。（3）開會耗費的時間的長短，與討論的問題的重要程度成反比。因為小事責任小大，人人爭相發言，大事人人都不懂，很快被通過。（4）委員會的組織總是越來越大，當人到超過二十一人時，工作便毫無效率可言了。這時，在委員會內部必然產生較小的正式、非正式的核心委員會。這些小委員會迅速發展，日趨龐大，局面複雜，惡性循環。（5）一個機關內部越閑散，辦公樓和內部辦公用具就越華麗。（6）機關有多少錢就會用多少錢，只會增加不會減少。因為今年用不完，下一年度就可能減少預算。（7）年老體弱而又居領導崗位的人物不肯退休，舉得下面的接班人備受挫折，心灰意冷或產生變態心理，並且容易發生后繼無人的恐慌（李方,1985）。

《帕金森定律》揭示的是資本主義社會行政組織中普遍存在的弊端，但筆者認為這些弊端決不僅僅存在於資本主義社會行政組織中，在大陸學校管理工作中，仍有類似的現象存在，並嚴重地干擾著學校管理工作的效率。筆者在此將其稱之為帕金森現象。

學校管理中的帕金森現象及其危害

1. 人事安排比例失調。大陸學校非教學人員比例過大。教學人員比例過小的現象普遍存在。據原國家教育委員會（1995年全國教育事業發展統計公報）中公布，全國普通高等學校教職工104.06萬人，其中專任教師30.07萬人（原國家教委，1996，p.175）。由此可得，大陸高校非教學人員與教學人員的比例為1.6:1。這種比例失調的現象給學校管理工作帶來許多危害。首先，它挫傷教學人員的工作積極性。大陸高校為教職工發放的津貼不是靠國家投入，而主要是靠教學人員的創收。教學人員在獲取津貼時以工作量的多少為依據，非教學人員的津貼一般以教學人員的平均教學工作量為依據。那么，非教學人員的比例越大，單位工作量的價值就越

小，教學人員的辛勤勞動被眾多的非教學人員平分，教學人員感到不公平，工作積極性很難充分發揮，影響教育教學質量。其次，造成教育經費浪費。大陸教育經費短缺，並且經費浪費現象卻為嚴重，其中非教學人員比例過大導致的教育經費浪費現象十分明顯。國家教育投入大部分用於公用經費，在公用經費中人員經費又佔大頭，人員經費中非教學人員經費又佔較大比例，它加重了國家財政負擔，影響了學校其他方面的經費需要。第三，人浮於事，不利於管理。由於非教學人員過多，很多人無所事事，學校機構臃腫，辦事效率低下，引起教師情緒上的不滿。

2.重複設置領導人員。中小學領導人員與教學人員的比例沒有嚴格規定。一般含18個以上教學班的學校都設有正校長一人，負責學校行政工作，同時，設分管教學、德育(原國家教委,1990)、總務的副校長各一人，黨組職書記一人，工會主席一人，有的學校有兼職書記一人。此外，還設有辦公室、教務處、政教處、總務處、教育研究室等中層領導機構，每處室設主任1人，副主任1-2人，管理人員1-3人。這種重複設置領導人員的現象給學校管理工作帶來很多危害。第一，領導者職責不清，矛盾重重。泰羅(Taylor)的科學管理理論非常注重管理上的職、權、責對等原則(孫耀君,1987)。領導者有什么職務，就應享有什么權力，也就應當承擔什么責任。而領導者重複設置，很難劃清相互之間的職責和權力，有時相互推諉，有時相互爭奪，勢必影響工作效果。例如，同時設置書記與專職書記，那么兩者的職責就很難劃分。第二，割裂某些職責，違背教育教學規律。教學具有教育性，知識的傳授與品德行為習慣的培養是難於分割的。學校分設主管教學的副校長和主管德育的副校長意在加強德育工作，但有時卻適得其反。大陸基礎教育的課程分為學科課和活動課(原國家教委,1990,1992)，主管德育工作的副校長要負責活動課中的部分內容，如班團隊活動、社會公益活動、軍訓活動等，這些活動固然是進行思想品德教育的重要途徑，但畢竟不是主要途徑，對學生進行思想品德教育的主要途徑仍然是學科教學活動，它來自於課堂教學。在學校領導職務的設置中，人為地割裂教育教學工作，給人一種錯覺，似乎德育工作僅僅依賴於活動課，學科教學無思想性可談，這是不科學的，它可能導致課堂教學中忽視思想品德教育，導致教育教學兩張皮。

3.學校設備標準高、使用率低。許多學校盲目追求學校發展規模，很少考慮學校設備的使用效率。盡管教育經費十分短缺，但許多學校卻舍得投入大量資金搞校舍和設備的硬件建設。有的學校花大量資金建實驗室、電教室、語言室、微機室、圖書室，建成後，由於水、電、儀器設備、教學軟件、圖書資料等條件不足，或由於教學人員素質較低，致使硬件設施長期閒置，或很少使用，造成嚴重浪費。

筆者曾於1997年8月對東北某省會城市鐵西區中小學校、職業學校、教師進修學校的65名教育工作者(均為東北師大教科院研究生課程進修班學員)，以「請用具體數字說明教育經費在使用過程中存在的浪費現象」為題進行調查。被調查者共列出8項教育經費使用中的浪費現象，並提出了導致浪費現象的主要原因。其調查結果見附表一。

由此項調查可知，學校管理中盲目進行硬件設施建設已是構成教育浪費的主要表現之一。

4.長者為先，不退休不離職。大陸學校領導職務的確定往往與年齡的大小有關，一般年齡大者多為第一領導者，主管全面工作，年輕者為副手，配合其工作。

筆者在近期對吉林省長春市寬城區所屬中小學校長年齡狀況所做的調查可以證明這一結果。寬城區共有34所中小學，其中初中9所，小學25所，校長34人，副校長36人。由於是區屬中小學，規模較小，一般在10-15個班，所以，不象規模較大的學校設置那麼多副校長。在34所中小學中，除有6所學校暫未設副校長外，其余28所學校有20所學校的正校長年齡大於副校長年齡，佔71%(注,1998)。具體情況見附表二。

根據規定，中小學校長一般不實行任期製(原國家教委,1993)。因而，年齡大者不退休，不離職，年輕者只能任副手，直至年長者退休或調離。這種狀況容易形成學校主要領導者的家長式作風，權力獨攬，年輕者不易充分發揮作用。

形成學校管理中帕金森現象的主要原因

1.教育法律實施細則滯后，影響教育法律的可操作性。建國以來，我國共頒發了六部教育法律，依頒發的先后順序為《中華人民共和國學位條例》(1980年2月12日)、《中華人民共和國義務教育法》(1986年4月12日)、《中華人民共和國教師法》(1993年10月31日)、《中華人民共和國教育法》(1995年3月18日)、《中華人民共和國職業教育法》(1996年5月15日)和《中華人民

共和國高等教育法》（1998年8月29日）。這六部教育法律中，只有前三部已經頒發了與之配套的下位法規，但其頒發的時間和規范的內容並不能完全保證其上位法的實施。如《中華人民共和國學位條例》的配套法規《中華人民共和國學位條例暫行實施辦法》於1981年5月20日實施，滯后一年多；《中華人民共和國義務教育法》的配套法規《中華人民共和國義務教育法實施細則》於1992年3月14日發布，滯后6年；《中華人民共和國教師法》的配套法規《教師資格條例》於1995年12月12日頒發（原國家教委，1996a），滯后2年，並且教師資格條例》在內容上還未完全對《中華人民共和國教師法》如何操作作出系統規定，特別是教師聘任製度問題如何操作，至今仍未能找到法律依據。因而，在教師聘任中，出現歷史上的終身製，只進不出，導致人浮於事的現象則難以避免。

另外，《中華人民共和國教育法》尚缺少基礎教育法、教育經費法等下位法與之銜接，致使一些問題不便操作。《中華人民共和國職業教育法》也沒有實際細則之類的法規與之配套。

2. 有關教育指標缺乏科學論証，導致實施中的誤區。筆者僅以教師編製問題為例加以說明。原國家教委關於《示范性普通高級中學評估驗收標準（試行）》規定：教師與學生的比例不低於1:10（原國家教委，1995）（已此項活動暫停）。《全國教育事業「九五」計劃和2010年發展規劃》中指出：1995年，普通高等學校生師比為8.9:1，在「九五」期間要「進一步提高」（原國家教委，1996，p.220及225）。這些提法尚有空隙。第一，只確定了生師比，而未確定生員比（學生與職工）。所以，指標雖在一定程度上限製了教師數量的發展，但卻未能限製職員的發展，而恰恰是職員的高比例導致了教育經費的浪費，形成帕金森現象。第二，未嚴格規定若達不到生師比的指標則將怎樣處理。所以，教師的發展也難以控製。第三，生師比對於不同地區、不同類型的學校是一個較為複雜的問題，應有所區別，但文件只是做了一般性的研究，這可能導致一些學校教師數量的增加。

3. 集權式的管理體製，束縛了校長的辦學自主權。學校的人事權掌握在教育行政部門，不僅校長的任命要由教育行政部門決定，教職員工的進與出也要經過教育行政部門批准。因此，校長雖然是學校的行政負責人（《教育法》，1995）但並沒有真正意義上的人事權，學校實行的聘任製，也只能是對學校已有人員發上一張聘書而已。這種管理體製使人員流動困難，學校隊伍不斷龐大。

克服學校管理中帕金森現象的幾點思考

1. 改革學校管理體製，轉變校長觀念。首先，要改革學校管理體製。教育行政部門應當在製定方針政策上下功夫，控製宏觀規劃，掌握學校的課程計劃、科學研究、人員編製、及時核撥教育經費等。學校應當有相應的辦學自主權，決定學校內部的重大事情，掌握教育人員的選擇標準，確定人事安排，調動教師的積極性，促進教師業務提高，保証教學質量。其次，校長應當轉變觀念。根據《中華人民共和國教育法》的規定《教育法》，1995），學校實行聘任製，其實質在於促進教職工的質量管理，形成競爭機製。校長應當從學校工作實際出發選擇教職工，有效行使自己的人事權，動態管理人事問題，避免瞻前顧后，影響多數人工作積極性的做法。同時，社會應當強化終身教育和保險機製，促進和保障人才流動。

2. 完善教育法規，科學管理學校。目前，大陸教育法規體系正處於形成時期，教育法律規范的內容尚有許多空隙，子法與母法的銜接不及時，某些指標的確定缺乏嚴格的論證，有些問題還沒有充分的管理依據。在這種情況下，很多領導者依賴於自己的威望、經驗、人情關系等管理學校，這樣的管理難免有極大的隨意性和低效性。這種狀況需要國家機關盡快完善教育法規體系，科學論証有關管理指標，為減少本文所述學校管理中的帕金森現象，國家應當盡快製定關於學校領導人員與教職工的比例，教學人員與非教學人員的比例，教育教學設備標準與學校使用效率，各級各類學校的班級學額，學校聘任製度的操作程序等方面的教育法規，為科學管理學校提供法律依據。

3. 提高管理者素質，促進管理效率的提高。大陸學校管理人員主要來源於三個方面：第一，從學校的優秀教師中提拔任命導職務。第二，從教育行政部門下派到學校任命導職務。第三，從各級各類學校畢業生中直接分配到學校做一般管理工作。從這三個方面的來源來看，大陸學校管理者有如下特點：第一，經驗型。從教師中提拔和從教育行政部門下派的學校領導者多為此種類型。他們有多年的教學經驗和行政工作經驗，但他們缺乏系統的理論知識學習，特別是缺乏對教育管理知識的學習。這種領導者容易以經驗代替規律，往往導致短期行為，影響學校工作效率。第二，理論型。從各級

各類學校畢業生直接分配任管理工作的多屬這種類型。他們儘管學過一些理論知識，但他們未必學過教育管理知識，即使是有些人學過教育管理知識，也很少有或者根本沒有教育管理實踐經驗，因此，在學校管理工作中手忙腳亂，理論與實際難以盡快結合，仍收不到理想效果。無論上面述及的哪一種類型的學校管理者都需要提高自身素質，這種素質來源於理論和實踐兩個方面，其核心問題是要找到理論與實踐的結合點。經驗型的學校管理者需要在實踐中系統學習教育管理理論，自覺用理論指導學校管理工作，包括學習國家的教育方針政策、法律法規，按章辦事，減少消耗，提高管理效率。理論型的學校管理者需要儘快豐富學校管理的感性認識，將理論與實踐有機結合，有效靈活地處理學校管理中的問題。當然，作為教育行政部門首先應當把住人事調配的關口，將適合於學校管理工作的人才疏送到應有的崗位上。同時，在工作中要有計劃地對學校管理者進行培訓。

結語

提高學校管理效率是學校管理工作必須解決的問題之一，它直接影響到教師積極性的發揮和教學質量的提高。本文述及的改革措施未必十全十美，但筆者認為這些措施至少是解決大陸學校管理中短缺現象的重要舉措。教育管理部門與學校管理工作者應當引起重視。

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附表一：

浪費現象描述	人次	佔被調查者人數的百分比	佔總人次的百分比	主要原因
1. 學校設備標準高，使用率低(學校設備指微機室、語音室、電教室、實驗室、圖書館等)	37	59%	26%	教學計劃中有關課程課時較少缺少指導教師缺少實驗儀器、藥品等；學生無閒置時間
2. 教學人員與非教學人員編製比例失調或超編	28	45%	20%	缺少科學的人事管理製度
3. 公款吃、喝、旅遊、購車	18	29%	13%	缺乏監督機製
4. 水、電浪費	17	29%	12%	(1) 管理不當 (2) 教職工不視自己為學校的主人
5. 重複建設、裝修	12	19%	9%	缺乏計劃
6. 學習、辦公等固定資產浪費	10	16%	7%	管理不當
7. 學校布局不合理	10	16%	7%	缺乏合理規劃
8. 各類學校比例失調	9	14%	6%	缺乏合理規劃
總　計	141		100%	

附表二：

學　校	校長年齡	副校長年齡			學　校	校長年齡	副校長年齡
15中	53				寧波路小學	52	38
37中	43	38			吳淞路小學	53	45
17中	49	55	55		黃河路小學	42	40
18中	43	38	39		東寶場小學	40	43
72中	48	45	38	30	朝鮮族小學	53	
92中	53	50	51	43	鐵北小學	45	
95中	48	53	43		鐵北二路小學	36	40
106中	54	53	49		革命路小學	50	39
123中	41	51			天光路小學	36	43
風華學校	52				育紅小學	32	39
南京大街小學	56	36			團山小學	50	36
天津路小學	42	36			東家小學	47	36
上海路小學	43	42			柳影路小學	51	
珠江路小學	52	38			長盛小學	50	36
浙江路小學	39	29			長新小學	42	38
白菊路小學	40	41			培智小學	55	38
育新小學	52	35			體育職業學校	41	

Zero Tolerance Policy in The United States Public School System — Response of School Social Work

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This paper discusses the holistic approach school social work responds to the zero tolerance policy in promoting school safety. Intervention at community level, with parents and homes, in the school system, with teachers and students, will be discussed.

美國公立學校的零容忍度紀律政策

本文從學校社會工作整全性立場，回應因提昇學校園安全而制訂的零容忍度紀律政策，討論怎樣從社區層面相家長方面，去介入幫助學校的老師及學生。

Zero tolerance policy-school social work response

Aggression towards persons and property, violence in our schools, our neighborhoods, and our communities, have grown to an alarming level in the last few decades. Notions of personal responsibility and the common good have been overtaken by the strident assertion of individual rights, victimization, and punitive legal remedies. Court calendars are jammed, and formal legal procedures have proved unable to keep up with the load or to provide lasting, peaceable solutions (Girard & Koch, 1996). In the public school system, having students gun-shooting students and school property, and discovery of drug trafficking and abuse, have become no more new news.

In order to achieve the Sixth National Educational Goal of the U.S. Department of Education to make every school in America free of drugs and violence and to foster a disciplined environment conducive to learning by the year 2000, all 50 states have now passed legislation that complies with the 1994 Federal gun-free school law. This law has directed states to adopt zero-tolerance policies on weapons, mandating a minimum of one-year expulsion of any student who brings a gun to school. Non-compliance may result in the possible loss of federal funding for a state under the Elementary or Secondary Education Act.

Moreover, in the implementation process of the zero tolerance policy, a number of states have surpassed the federal mandate and students are being suspended and expelled for a number of wider "misbehavior" than legally required. While some states provide alternative educational system for school drop-outs, at-risk students, suspended and expelled students, many other states have no such educational provisions. Moreover, the recent re-authorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act contains provisions that allow students with disabilities to receive the same punishment as non-disabled students for offenses unrelated to their disabilities.

Politicians and the general public, including many "custodial" educators (Short, Short & Blanton, 1994), commonly perceive violence as a disciplinary and law enforcement problem. Interventions emerge from this perspective include suspension, expulsion, probation, increase in security and metal detectors, prison sentences, legal consequences for parents, and other "get tough" policies. A basic assumption is that punishment will at least remove young criminals from the school or society. By ignoring school conditions, this crime-focused perspective of school violence focuses only on the exclusion, isolation, and punishment of chronically disruptive students, the "bad" kids; so that our teachers are able to teach and the "good" students can learn. Morrison, et al.(1994) and other "humanistic" educators (Short, Short & Blanton) have moved the discussion of school violence from the crime-focused perspective to a school safety

perspective built on a prevention and developmental premise. Rather than focusing only on the disruptive students, the school safety perspective postulates that it is the school conditions that play a major role in provoking, exacerbating, and reinforcing aggressive student behavior, especially among at-risk students. Thus, this perspective emphasizes on creating a safe, welcoming and nurturing school environment that takes into account student's needs, particularly that of the at-risk and disadvantaged students.

School social work shares the important mission to reduce violence and to enhance discipline so that schools can have peaceful, disciplined environment conducive to education practices. School social worker should make the best out of the "social control" effect of the legal backup of the zero tolerance policy for the school personnel to get tough and strict with students displaying violent behavior. At the same time, however, they should help the public and school personnel to realize and minimize the potentially negative effects of unnecessarily harsh policies and practice. While assisting to monitor and prevent the abusive application of such to the detriment of student welfare, school social work has the important preventive role to participate in ongoing assessment and development of policies and practices that will really serve the goal and function to reduce violence and to increase discipline and safety.

Research on effective intervention

Research has indicated that intervention based on the crime-focused perspective has resulted in increased conflict, lower level of implementation, and decreased involvement in organizational efforts. Studies have repeatedly documented that harsh and punitive disciplinary measures aggravate the potential for violence rather than controlling it (Bayh, B., 1970; Bsag, 1989; Alxander, 1993). School drop-outs who have been expelled from school for being regarded as violent under the zero tolerance policy are often prone to resort to more violence. Indeed, Patterson, et al (1991) found that the revolving door of the juvenile justice system, whereby the delinquent will get caught back into the system after repeated discharges, may actually increase the young person's chances of becoming violent criminals eventually.

In contrast, intervention based on the school safety perspective has proven its ability to bring about more positive outcome resulting in fewer dropouts, fewer incidences of vandalism and a more disciplined environment with drastically reduced incidences needing discipline (Bangiovanni, 1979; Short, Short and Blanton, 1994; Johns, Carr and Hoots, 1995; Goldstein, A.P. & Conoley, J.C., 1997). Outcome studies illustrating successes in these variab'es in school violence programs built from the school safety perspective across the country can serve to illuminate the factors associated with success.

For instance, from the examples of the Discipline Management Program in Ohio in the Mid-West; the Paramount Plan in Paramount, California in the West Coast; the Project Stress Control School-Based Program in Atlanta, Georgia in the South; and the Resolving Conflict Creatively Program in New York City, New York in the East Coast; the following variables can be identified to be associated with success in combating violence. The program should have an early start and a long-term commitment for the intended effects to come about. The program needs to be comprehensive, developmentally appropriate, and culturally sensitive. While strong leadership and disciplinary policies are important for success, all the programs show that the active involvement of teachers, students, parents and the community is critical. They should be on a concerted front in sharing goals, systematic and consistent use of consequences and public reinforcement of good behavior. Ongoing staff development in the schools and inter-agency partnership in the community are also helpful to building a strong violence prevention program. There is an emphasis on ongoing use and development of data for evaluation and constant renewal.

Multi-dimensional, multi-level intervention by school social workers

The analysis of the components of success in school violence programs point to the importance of developing a comprehensive, multi-dimensional, ecological approach of intervention (Harootunian, 1986, p.131; Goldstein, Harootunian, Conoley, 1994; Goldstein, Conoley, 1997).

Within the context of the four school social work roles cited by Ginsberg (1990) of student therapist, consultant to school personnel, family practitioner, and broker for

community resources, school social workers intervene at multi-levels: from community, to parents and home, school, teacher and the student. Their ultimate mission is to foster a nurturing school environment which will naturally produce long-lasting discipline that outgrows violence.

Social work intervention at community level

Social workers can serve on crisis teams, community task forces, to provide many of the direct and indirect services for coping with violence and violence reduction, to participate in hearings designed to enforce the policies or to monitor whether administrators implement them fairly and equitably to minimize harshness, to allow for exceptions wherever circumstances allow for and can contribute towards social betterment of the student (Fairchild,1986). Another critical contribution of school social workers in reducing and preventing violence is by serving on school and community policy-making committees, in which they can help in developing "zero tolerance" policy about violence and safety; help to identify school and community risk factors that initiate or reinforce violence and work toward addressing those conditions through the reform or development of related policies.

At the community level, family support service would be an example of solution to achieve the goal of remediation, while the development of less restrictive child labor law can be an example to achieve the compensatory goal. An administrative strategy that can be considered for reaching the goal of prevention is the use of the Adopt-A- School Program; whereby business, service organizations are engaged in mutually beneficial arrangement with schools. Children and youth from schools can often benefit through hands-on involvement with business practices, industrial equipment or adult tutors; and also from involvement with positive adult role models through such contacts with the community. Through adopting a school, the community organizations learn about cooperative teaming, objective-based efforts and effective training strategies. The educational dimension of community intervention can include development and promotion of psychosocial TV programs, while the psychological dimension of community intervention can include program for disturbed children and youth. An example of physical dimension of community intervention is development of near school mobile-home vandalism watch. Indiana State has demonstrated the successful use of the "Helping Hand Program" whereby homes and businesses put placards in their windows exhibiting a large handprint showing children and youth are welcome to go for help when they are teased, attacked or intimidated. Another community program to consider is the Restitution Program that has proved to be effective especially for first-time young offenders. It provides a way for the young offender to make restitution in the form of service to the victims of crime.

Wherever appropriate, active interagency liaison and cooperation would be helpful to address to and be responsive to different needs of students, parents, teachers and the school and the community as a whole.

Social work intervention with parents and home

Inter-facing between the community and the school systems, parental involvement and home-school collaboration are key to success in preventing violence in schools. Social workers should promote interaction and shared responsibility between home and school to promote the welfare of students and to reduce problems of students. Effective ways of information provision, sharing, transfer, can be promoted in conjunction with teachers and other school personnel, e.g., providing parents with report cards, notes, phone calls, in addition to infrequent parent-teacher meetings. Forms should be available for different purposes, e.g., to get permission from parents for release of information of students, to enable non-custodial parent to contact student to provide additional ongoing support for the student's development, etc. A feasible communication system must be established among teacher at school and parent at home; and the student/child in general and in regard to specific behavior and rewards agreed upon in particular. Communication alternatives can be increased through the use of newsletters, phone committees, community bulletin boards, features in newspapers, monthly meetings, and providing resource lists, practical guide to child safety, to parents through school bulletins. School social workers should be sensitive to consider the special circumstances and

needs of working parents and single parents when scheduling parent-teacher meetings, e.g., arrangement and providing childcare during parent-child consultation, are some simple practical examples to enhance home-school collaboration. Parents' strengths can be promoted to empower other parents, through such way as inviting parents to give talks of their respective expertise to share with other parents and school personnel. Behavioral and learning problems of students have typically reduced when they know that their parents are active in school and they are in alliance with the teacher and the school. Hence, engaging parents in volunteer programs, such as helping out the school for a bake-sale or for a field trip, etc. would be helpful : not only for providing service for the school, but also for fostering the involvement and the development of a sense of belonging to the school for both the student and the parent. Such involvement and sense of belonging has proved to be instrumental in reducing problems of students at school. Other preventive measures and service the school can offer for the parents include sponsoring parent training workshop, using the school building as community center for adult education classes, brief family consultation and counseling, etc.

Social work intervention in the school system

Using a school-wide focus rather than a problem-student focus has been identified to be a component that constitutes success in violence prevention program. Successful school discipline can be achieved through framing discipline as an organizational issue. Understanding teacher and student behavior as part of a larger organizational context provides a better opportunity to identify causes of poor student discipline and to structure more effective means of dealing with the causes. Organizational factors play an important role in creating a nurturing environment conducive to good student behavior. The crucial key to an effective total school discipline program is commitment to a plan of action, with shared values among students, teachers, parents, and administrators about what is acceptable, appropriate behavior in the particular school setting. School practice that heightens student and staff involvement has been found to important for building a helpful school climate. Activities that increase status, visibility, recognition and group cohesiveness may decrease student alienation. For example, school social workers can organize a school-wide class contest in producing a program (e.g., a skid, a group art design, etc.) that is most effective in publicizing and promoting school safety, and invite the parents and the community to participate as the judges and the audience. Student problems can be drastically decreased where faculty has created climates of student belonging and involvement. Involved students actively engaged in class and interested in classroom activities stay on-task at a higher level than students less interested and involved (Short and Short, 1990). Students who drop out of school perceive little sense of belonging (Ward, 1982). In effectively disciplined schools, students perceive a sense of belonging, a feeling that they are recognized and rewarded for their efforts. Even alternative schools have been shown to better meet student needs than regular schools in the areas of self-esteem, social and self-actualization (Gregary & Smith, 1983). The role and behavior of the school administrator influences the character and effectiveness of discipline in the school. The principal's most effective role in school discipline may be as a facilitator of teacher initiated discipline (Short and Short, 1987). The visibility of the principal to facilitate the problem-solving among school participants that results in collaborative approaches to establishing a positive school environment with clear expectations for students is recommended (Krakeski, 1977).

At the school level, a solution towards the goal of prevention is having 24-hour custodial service available. The use of Plexiglas windows, however, is one of the solutions to achieve the compensatory goal. The development and use of prescriptively tailored courses would provide an educational dimension of remedial intervention. The use of skilled conflict negotiators provides a psychological dimension of intervention strategy for school violence. An administrative intervention strategy for school violence is to consider reducing the size of classes to a reasonably controllable size effective for teaching, learning and management. While having legal rights handbook addresses the legal dimension of intervention strategy; the use of lighting, painting, and paving programs would offer the physical dimension of intervention strategy for school violence.

Social work intervention with teachers

Social workers have an important role to enhance teachers with the skills and confidence to "take charge" in the classroom. The use of discipline management program and in-school alternative learning program as demonstrated at the Woodlover High School in 1986-87 would provide alternative programs to punitive in-school suspension. Assertive discipline is a competency-based approach to discipline developed by Lee Canter (1981). Social workers can help teacher to insist on decent, responsible behavior from students, through means relevant and acceptable in the respective school settings, e.g., consultation, workshop, in-service training, etc. Furthermore, teachers can be helped to realize that they have basic educational rights in their classroom, i.e., the right to establish optimal learning environments, and the right to determine, request and expect appropriate behavior from their students. On the other hand, social workers can advocate for students having their basic rights in the classroom. These needs, rights, and conditions are best met through assertive discipline, in which the teacher communicates clear expectations to students and consistently follow up with appropriate actions. While assertive response style is utilized to set clear limits and consequences, the best interest of the students are never violated but rather promoted.

At the intervention level with teachers, providing educational programs to enhance knowledge of ethnic and minority milieu would offer one of the preventive solutions to increase understanding and reduce conflict. Advocating for a better teacher-pupil ratio can be an administrative compensatory intervention, while acquisition of new training techniques in psychological skills, e.g., structured learning, is a remediation solution. In working with the teacher systems, Aggression Management Training would be a program addressing to the psychological dimension of intervention. A legal dimension of intervention is to provide compensation for aggression related expenses. A physical dimension of intervention with teachers is to alert them to be prepared with personal alarm.

The use of the Teacher Assistance Team (TAT model) has proved to be effective. This refers to a team of regular education teacher meeting on a scheduled basis (e.g., once a week) to generate solutions to problem referrals from parents, students, and other teachers in the school. Through their screening, the most intractable problems will be referred for possible special education services or for additional community service.

Problem-Solving Teams involving teachers , school administrators, parents, and community professionals have been effective in cultivating and institutionalizing problem-solving in classroom and collaboration among professionals and parents at the school level. As a team, for each problem situation presented, they define the problem, specify the problem, evaluate solutions, follow up and recycle if necessary. Consistent, planned support and resources from school system administration are critical in maintaining optimal effectiveness of school-based teams (Short & Tally, 1990).

Social work intervention with the students

When parents and teachers view students as able, valuable, and responsible, and invite them to behave accordingly, it is not surprising that students accept the invitation and exhibit self-discipline. Self-discipline is nurtured each time a parent or a teacher treats a student with dignity, respect, and civility, all within a framework of positive expectations. As a combination of constitutional law and ethical practice, judicious discipline creates a model that empowers. At the level of intervention with students, it is important to develop smart discipline plan, using smart strategies. Smart strategies can include simple, practical ways like, welcome and appreciate a student, write a note, a letter, call home to show encouragement to a student and his/her parent(s), asking general personal questions to get them acquainted. Another helpful strategy is to transpose critical comments, e.g., from "you are lazy" to "you are a hard worker and I expect you work that way " by further establishing rules and consequences, etc.

In intervention with students, creating a nurturing environment as described above and other simple measures such as requiring identification card to ensure safety, are examples of primary preventive solutions. Arranging transfer

or shifting to a part-time program, can be an administrative, compensatory intervention strategy. Developing interpersonal training programs, e.g., using behavioral modification or cognitive techniques, provides a psychological dimension of intervention in achieving the goal of remediation. While moral education will provide an educational dimension of intervention, the use of security personnel would be an example of providing a legal dimension of intervention strategy. A physical dimensional of intervention strategy would be development of student murals and graffiti boards to allow for open expression of feelings, etc.

To prevent at-risk students from reaching the stage to be punished with suspension and expulsion, social workers can use multi-approaches to work with students at secondary and tertiary levels of prevention. Various student-oriented skills training, using approaches like modeling, role-playing, performance feedback, transfer and maintenance of training, have proved to be helpful for many students. Other approaches would be psycho-dynamic and humanistic intervention, milieu therapy, psycho-education, humanistic intervention and gang-oriented intervention (Goldstein, Harootunian & Conoley, 1994). Other programs that have been found to be useful are aggression replacement training, problem-solving training, empathy training, situational perception training, stress management, co-operative learning, recruiting supportive models, understanding and using group processes, and so on. There are various effective skills that social workers can use to help students increase their cognitive and social competence (e.g., in academic performance, communication development, inappropriate masturbation, thumb-sucking, nail biting, encurosis-encopresis, substance abuse, sexual behavior), their ability to relate with peers (e.g., shyness and withdrawal, aggression, prejudice), enhancing their ability to relate with adults (e.g., child maltreatment, running away, cult membership, etc.), and their skills in addressing health management issues of children (e.g., aids, chronic illness, tourette syndrome, traumatic head injury). Effective skills in dealing with externalizing responses (e.g., inattentive/distracted behavior, impulsivity, hyperactivity, attention deficit hyperactivity, etc.), and those with internalizing responses (e.g., anxiety, stress, fears/phobias, obsessive-compulsive behavior, low self-esteem, identity crisis in homosexual youth, elective mutism, depression, suicidal behavior, etc.) of students, can also be applied (Cohen & Fish, 1993).

Programs for arbitration, mediation and conflict resolution from within and without school, development of peer training peer peace education and mediation among students, have demonstrated capacity to provide responsive, timely and affordable justice (Girard & Koch, 1996). It is guided by the principle that the tensions inherent in conflict situations, if dealt with creatively, can produce positive results. Besides applying these skills themselves, social workers can help to develop such skills with student leaders, teachers and parents, to help students at risk of suspension and expulsion.

Prevention of truancy and school drop-out are critical to bring student-at-risk back on track before they develop more problems and running the risk of suspension and expulsion. Combating truancy is a way for communities to reach out quickly to disaffected young people and help families struggling with rebellious children. Students and parents are encouraged to be involved in all truancy prevention programs, while local law enforcement are involved in truancy reduction efforts. When the zero tolerance policy has to be considered to be exercised, social workers have an important role to work with teachers, parents, administrators and the students(s) concerned to exhaust all means to provide exception and chance for renewal.

When the student, after all, have to be suspended or expelled by zero tolerance policy and practice, social workers should help to find and develop alternative programs to engage the student productively towards rehabilitation. Intense work with the student and his/her family is critical in reaching the important goal of helping student to get back on track with education, vocational training, developing work skill and habit, using the time being away from school suspended or expelled as a chance and a means to equip the student to work their way back into the same or alternative educational or vocational system. It is important to prevent these at-risk students from further idling, engaging with gangs, or drifting farther and further away into delinquency and crime.

Conclusion

School social workers have a dynamic, and challenging role to play in working with the interactive systems of the community, the parents and home, the school, the teachers and the students. Their goal is to ensure that the broad goals

of the zero tolerance policies and practices to reduce violence and to promote discipline can truly be reached, and that the abusive use of suspension and expulsion to be the end rather than the means be prevented. More important, school social workers are charged with the important mission to help building a nurturing environment that can truly bring peace, justice and genuinely promote student welfare in a welcoming, safe, disciplined school, home and community environment. Much has been done, and very much more still needs to be done ahead, starting from each school in the local communities, expanding across different states and the entire nation. As much as there is still much to learn from other countries, hopefully the experiences in the United States can provide helpful reference to other countries.

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改革開放以來中國大陸家庭教育事業之進展

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改革開放以來，中國大陸的家庭教育事業取得了長足的進步。本文旨在通過文獻分析和經驗總結的方法，概括中國大陸家庭教育事業進展的狀況，並提出推動其進一步發展的建議。

Analysis of the Undertaking of the Family Education in the Mainland of China Since the Reform and Opening

In the mainland of China we have made great progress in the cause of the family education since the reform and opening. This article aims to draw an outline of the advance of the family education in the mainland China and to analyze the factors influencing this progress, by means of analysis of the literature and direct experience.

一、緒　言

眾所周知，中國古代儒家「修身、齊家、治國、平天下」的思想深入人心，《三字經》「養不教，父之過；教不嚴，師之惰」的格言流傳為流傳，有許多諸如「孟母三遷」、「岳母刺字」的教子范例，重視家教可謂中華民族優良傳統。由于複雜的原因，1949年10月新中國建立后家庭教育長期得不到重視，在1966年至1976年的十年內亂中無知者還濫批古代家庭教育傳統。在1978年12月中共十一屆三中全會上，大陸政策出現重大變化，強調經濟建設的中心地位，逐進入了改革開放的新時期。此后經濟持續高速發展，政治長期保持穩定，學校教育普及程度不斷提高，家庭教育也愈來愈受到社會與民眾的重視，數度出現「家庭教育熱」，逐漸形成為一種社會事業。

家庭教育(簡稱家教，Family education)，在中國大陸被認為是在家庭內部，年長者對年幼者的指導、培養和幫助，當前主要是指父母親對其尚未進入成年的子女的指導、培養和幫助；事業是指具有一定的規模和集中的目標，有利于社會和個體發展的經常性工作；家庭教育事業是指社會各界對家庭教育的研究、宣傳、組織、管理等工作；進展是指較高程度地向前發展。本文所謂「家庭教育事業進展」有合上述釋義。這裡所要強調的是，家教事業是整個社會事業的一個組成部分，家教事業的進展同社會的經濟、政治、文化、教育(即學校教育)諸項事業的進步是互為影響、互相製約的，若要把家教事業放在整個社會的進步與發展中審視，才不致出現或較少出現片面性。

本研究之目的，在于通過分析改革開放以來中國大陸家庭教育事業的發展過程，明確在這個過程中起重要作用的事件及其背景，理清大陸家庭教育事業發展的基本線索，並且預測其前景；通過分析改革開放以來影響大陸家庭教育事業的基本因素，了解大陸家庭教育事業發展的主要成就和存在的主要問題，並探討促進其進一步發展的關鍵措施。

本文采用文獻分析與經驗總結的研究方法。就前者而言，改革開放以來大陸的新聞媒體和學術報刊對家庭教育和家庭教育工作作了大量報道和評述，筆者搜集了在大陸影響較大的《人民日報》、《光明日報》、《家庭教育月刊》、《中華家教雙月刊》、《中國人民大學複印報刊資料》《家庭教育》、《教育學》、《社會學等卷》有關家教的文章，以及中國家庭教育學會(China Institute of Family Education)和一些省市家庭教育研究會(簡稱家教會)的會議資料，對這些文章與資料作了整理、分類和概括；就后者而言，可以說筆者是改革開放以來大陸家教事業興起和發展的推動者和見證人之一，80年代中期以來先后在洛陽、北京、廣州等地從事家教的研究、宣傳、培訓等工作，逐漸把家庭教育問題作為自己研究的主要內容，發表了若干篇論文和報告，尤其是1993-

1995年做了家庭教育專題的專題研究，較為深入地思考了近年中國大陸家教事業進展的經驗教訓。本文可以說是對這些年的調查研究的一種總結。

本文對改革開放以來中國大陸家教事業進展之分析，從縱、橫兩個方向展開。縱向分析即為過程分析，鑒于中國家庭教育學會在中國大陸家教事業發展過程中的重要地位，筆者以1989年9月該會的成立為界，把中國大陸家教事業的發展分為前后兩個階段，敘述了兩個階段的特點和重要事件，並在這一部分的開始和最后，分別敘述了中國大陸家教事業興起的背景，預測了家教事業的前景。橫向分析即為因素分析，筆者參考《全國家庭教育工作「九五」計劃》（「九五」指1996-2000年）暨《全國家庭教育工作評估指標》的精神，把社會的重視程度、民眾的重視程度、家教工作的組織與隊伍狀況、家教研究與普及工作狀況、家長教子水平與家長教育素質狀況作為評價家教事業進展狀況的基本指標，根據事物都有兩面性的原理對這五個因素中的成就與不足（甚或是嚴重問題）進行了剖析。

二、過程分析

1、中國大陸家教事業興起的背景

中國大陸家教事業興起的標志是1980年9月北京市家庭教育研究會的成立，以及在此期間專門的家教期刊《父母必讀》創刊和專門的家長學校「母范學堂」（通過開設家庭教育知識講座，組織家長討論家教問題等方式培訓家長的業余教育機構，多數附設在中小學，最初來到家長學校學習的主要是中小學生的母親）的創辦。大陸家教事業興起的背景，就是改革開放的新政策帶動了社會各項事業的進步，給家庭教育和家教工作提供了發展的機遇。具體表現在四個方面：

第一，廣大家長「望子成龍」的強烈愿望。許多家長對于自己在上年內亂中未能認真讀書學習感到痛惜，進而把希望寄托在孩子身上，非常重視對子女的教育。

第二，解決教育獨生子女中的難題的需要。大陸1979年起在城鎮實行一對夫妻只生一個孩子的人口政策，此前已有一些青年夫妻自愿生養一個孩子。獨生子女家長教育子女過程中除了遇到與非獨生子女家長相同的問題外，還有許多特殊問題，渴望社會給予指導和幫助。

第三，升學、就業、晉職等社會競爭的影響。70年代末期世界新技術革命傳入中國大陸，逐漸引發了產業結構和社會結構的變化，知識、能力在個人升學、就業、晉升中的作用突出，家長意識到必須加強家庭教育（尤其早期家教）才能提高孩子的競爭力。

第四，救助失足青少年的迫切需要。十年內亂期間，部分青少年受無政府主義影響，參與打、砸、搶活動，淪為「文盲+流氓」式的失足者，要幫助和改造這些孩子，沒有家庭教育的積極參與顯然是不行的。

2、第一階段（1980年9月-1989年8月）的概況

這個階段基本上處在國民經濟和社會發展的「六五」（1981-1985年）、「七五」（1986-1990年）時期。「六五」期間中國大陸的國內生產總值年均增長率為10.7%，「七五」期間國內生產總值年均增長率是7.9%，經濟、文化、教育、科技、衛生事業逐勃發展，政治上糾正「文革」期間的「左」傾錯誤，不斷擴大改革、開放的力度。家教事業雖然剛剛起步，但社會和民眾的關心和支持卻不斷升溫，尤其在城鎮形成了較大的聲勢。這個階段出現的重要事件如下：

第一，中央領導層對家教事業的支持。1981年2月中共中央專門發出文件，充分肯定了家教工作的重要意義，要求各級婦聯（即婦女聯合會，女界群眾團體）把家教工作作為工作重點之一，要求教育等部門積極支持和配合。1982年全國婦聯（All-China Women's Federation）成立了主管家教工作的機構——兒童工作部家教處。不久教育部曾改稱國家教育委員會明確了負責家教工作的機構——基礎教育司校外教育處。

第二，地方家教研究會和家長學校的廣泛建立。繼北京市之后，1982年3月廣東省建立了家教會，上海市、浙江省、湖北省也較早建立了家教會，到1987年大陸30個省級區域中有27個建立了家教會，廈門、廣州、南京、武漢等市級家教會也掛牌工作。家長學校亦迅速發展，至1989年6月各地已建立13萬所各類家長學校，其中廣東省有2.1萬所，參加學習的人數已達338.8萬人次。

第三，中國兒童發展中心和各地科學育兒基地的創立。1983年10月，以研究和促進兒童身心健康發展為宗旨的中國兒童發展中心（Child Development Centre of China）在北京成立，1985-1987年該中心同世界兒童基金會一起，指導和幫助上海、廣東、雲南等省市建立了科學育兒實驗基地，促進了家教研究和家教知識普及工作的發展。

第四，獨生子女教育問題的討論。80年代中期大陸新一代獨生子女（8歲以下）人數達到了2000萬，獨生子女教育問題受到社會各界廣泛關注。1986年《作家》發

表邁納的《中國的「小皇帝」》后之應熱烈，許多省市家教會和報刊開展了專門討論，並陸續出版了一批獨生子女教育經驗匯編之類的著作。

3、第三階段1989年9月至今的概況

這個階段經過了國民經濟和社會發展的「八五」(1991-1995年)時期，目前進入「九五」時期。中國大陸「八五」期間國內生產總值年均增長率為12%，社會主義市場經濟體製逐步建立，全方位、多層次的開放格局初步形成，各項社會事業穩步發展。但是各地區各行業經濟發展差距拉大、道德滑坡與違法犯罪現象日益突出。家教事業繼續向前發展，初步形成了從中央到地方的家教工作網絡系統，但由於多種製約因素的干擾，90年代中期家教事業發展的勢頭趨緩。這個階段出現的重要事件如下：

第一，中華全國家庭教育學會的成立。1989年9月10-12日該會在北京舉行成立大會，著名學前教育學家盧樂山教授當選為會長。該會是具有法人資格的全國性學術性社會團體，承擔家庭教育的理論研究、學術交流和宣傳普及、咨詢培訓兩大任務，其業務主管部門是中華全國婦女聯合會。

第二，有關法律和文件的出台。1990年中國國務院設立了婦女兒童工作協調委員會(1993年改稱婦女兒童工作委員會)，1991年頒布了《未成年人保護法》，其第10條規定了「父母或其他監護人應當以健康的思想、品行和適當的方式教育未成年人」，1992年以國務院名義頒布的《90年代中國兒童發展規劃綱要》規定到2000年「使90%的兒童(14歲以下)家長不同程度地掌握保育、教育兒童的知識」。

第三，開展多種形式的宣傳普及、培訓競賽等活動。90年代以來各級家教會學婦聯、教育部門開展的家庭教育工作更為廣泛，每年「六一」兒童節前后達到高潮。如1992年全國婦聯等單位在多個城市舉行「優生、優育、優教知識競賽」，報名參賽者達到1000餘萬人，出售有關書籍200萬冊。

第四，家教誤區及其討論。90年代以來，許多有識之士對家教事業數量增長快、質量提高慢的問題提出質疑。1992年11-12月間，武漢、沈陽、南京接連出現家長失手打死孩子的不幸事件。《人民日報》遂及組織了「今天我們怎樣教育孩子」的專題討論。1993年底《人民日報》又開設了「教育孩子怎樣做人」的專欄，與此同時，其他中央和地方的新聞媒體也大量報導家教問題、討論揭示了家教誤區，喚起了人們的家教質量意識。

第五，離散家庭子女問題及其研究。80年代以來，大陸離婚率呈上升趨勢，90年代初每年約有1000萬對(a)新婚夫婦組成新的家庭，約有80-90萬對夫妻離婚，離婚率(b) [illegible] 約為千分之一點五。一般來說，父母離異對子女的心理健康、學習成績、品德行為都將產生深遠的、不利的影響。90年代許多研究者對此進行了調查研究，提出了防止父母離異對子女成長不利影響的一些建議。

第六，第二屆全國家教會的召開與全國家教工作「九五」計劃。1994年9月全國家教會在北京舉行第二屆會員代表大會，大會決定改稱中國家庭教育學會，選舉全國婦聯副主席黃啟兆(Huang Qi-zao)為新一屆會長。1996年全國婦聯與國家教委等部門對各地區貫徹執行《90年代中國兒童發展規劃綱要》的情況作了中期檢查，9月召開了「全國『三優工程』和家庭教育工作總結表彰研討會」(「三優工程」即1990年起在22個市、縣推行的優生、優育、優教工作試驗)，提出了《全國家庭教育工作「九五」計劃》暨《全國家庭教育工作評估方案》、《全國家庭教育工作評估指標》。

4、中國大陸家教事業的發展前景

1996年中國大陸進入了國民經濟和社會發展的第九個五年計劃。3月份製定了《國民經濟和社會發展「九五」計劃和2010年遠景目標綱要》。從近兩年發表的各項統計數據看，「九五」運行良好，保持了「八五」的勢態。預計今后3-4年大陸家教事業將保持90年代中期的勢態，並出現以下幾種趨向：

第一，家教事業同其他社會事業的聯系將更為密切。目前社會各界已經較為深刻地認識到了家教事業的重要性，主動關心、支持、參與家教事業的人士越來越多，未來將有更多的社區和城鎮把家教工作納入到當地的精神文明建設和社會發展中，未來將有更多的中小學校建立家長委員會或者家庭、學校、社區三結合的教育工作小組，一個包括學校教育和家庭教育、社會教育在內的現代國民教育體系將逐步形成。

第二，家教工作將逐步走上規范化的軌道。鑒于近幾年中國大陸的家庭教育和家教工作已有不少經驗教訓，現在全國家教工作「九五」計劃及評估方案、評估指標已經頒布，況且許多地方政府部門製定了具體的家教工作計劃，家長學校達標條件，未來家教工作的質量和效益都將得到提高，並將逐步避免搞家教活動以此斂財的主要目的是通過售書、培訓、競賽等活動賺錢)，促使中國大陸家教工作逐步規范化。

第三，家教工作將面臨更多的社會「家庭問題的干擾」目前中國大陸存在著地區間行業間收入差距擴大、黃色書刊和音像製品屢禁不絕、離婚率居高不下、青少年犯罪率上升等社會「家庭問題，以及金錢至上、人情淡漠、投機鑽營、貪污腐敗等不良風氣，這些干擾著家庭教育事業和兒童的健康成長，而要解決上述問題決非一日之功，未來家教事業的發展將在一定程度上受製于上述社會「家庭問題」

第四，家庭教育誤區的消除尚需長期努力。當前中國大陸家教誤區相當嚴重，出現誤區的根本原因是廣大家長自身的科學文化素質和思想道德素質不高，教育子女的觀念落后，教育子女能力不足。雖然家教工作者為消除家教誤區做了大量的工作，許多家長亦認識到了家教誤區的危害性，但要全面地、大幅度地提高家長素質需要經過長期努力才能奏效。

三、因素分析

1、社會的重視程度

任何社會事業的發展，沒有社會有識之士的努力，尤其是社會上層的認同都是不可能的。改革開放以來，中國大陸社會各界對家庭教育的地位和作用的認識逐漸深化，通過各種方式支持和參與家教工作。具體表現是：

第一，各級領導的重視和支持。中央領導較早認識到了家教工作的重要性，經常出席有關會議、參加有關活動，號召地方各級政府支持家教工作。許多地方領導人逐漸把家教工作列入到當地的精神文明建設與社區發展規劃中，為家教事業發展提供各種支持措施。

第二，婦聯和教育部門的積極工作。婦聯和教育部門把家教做為自己的重要工作內容，有組織、有計劃地開展多方面的工作。如舉辦家長學校、家教經驗宣傳、家教知識競賽等。新近頒布的《全國家庭教育工作「九五」計劃》就是在已有工作成果基礎上，對未來家教工作的設計。

第三，社會各界對家教工作的關心和支持。現在中國大陸的新聞界、文化界、衛生界、民政部門、司法部門等都參與家教工作，尤其是新聞界為了喚起民眾對家教的重視，不遺余力地進行宣傳和發動工作。

但是，目前中國大陸家教事業的發展還存在著較大的隨意性，發展家教事業的「硬」措施不力，沒有專門的法律製度保障。一些地方領導人存在著「經濟建設是大事，文化教育是小事，學校教育是公事，家庭教育是私事」之類的觀念，對家教工作采取「說起來重要，做起來次要，忙起來不要」的態度，致使一些地方家教工作難以開展。

2、民眾的重視程度

目前中國大陸約有12億人口，3.2億個家庭，3.5億個15歲以下兒童和5億多個兒童家長。大陸民眾素有「望子成龍，盼女成鳳」的傳統，加之城鎮多數家庭只有一個孩子，因此非常重視家庭教育，也比較關注社會的家教工作。1995年12月民間調查機構零點市場公司在北京市市民中調查最關心的社會問題時，家庭教育被列為第一位。民眾對家教的重視，主要表現在以下幾點：

第一，大幅度增加教育子女的經濟支出。改革開放前，多數家長對子女的教育支出僅限于有個學期的學雜費。近年來，除了學校向學生收取的費用不斷增加外，家長用于給孩子購置參考書、文具包括收錄機、磁帶和電腦、磁卡等)和送孩子參加課外「特長班(音樂、美術等)的費用成倍增加。據1996年6月北京、上海、廣州等大城市的調查，目前這些城市市民家庭收入的1/5和生活支出的1/3用于支付子女的學雜費和家庭教育費，這個比例較10年前上升了25%左右。

第二，廣大家長踴躍學習家教知識。改革開放初期，絕大多數家長還是憑經驗教育子女，現在越來越多的家長主動學習家教知識，向專家請教家教難題。《中國婦女報》在1996年的一次調查顯示，約74%的家長通過閱讀家庭教育刊物學習家教知識。另據幾份資料，北京、上海、廣州市區小學生家長參加家長學校的比例超過了80%。

第三，越來越多的家長關心和參與社會上的家教工作。如參加報刊、電台或家教會組織的家教問題討論，配合家教工作者調查研究家教問題，向管理部門提出改進家教工作的建議。

但是，也有部分家長在增加教育子女的物質投入的同時，精神投入不足，和孩子交流的時間減少。部分家長花錢僱人輔導孩子學習，或者把孩子寄養在親友家中。這種現象在流動人口(離開戶籍地讀書生一年以上者)和個體工商戶(以家庭為單位的獨立經營工業、手工業和商業的人口中相當普遍。

3、家教工作的組織和隊伍狀況

經過十多年的不懈努力，目前中國大陸已經初步形成了從中央到地方的家教工作網絡系統，主要有以下幾個部分：

第一，領導系統　在中央有國務院婦女兒童工作委員統領，全國婦聯、教育部以及國家計劃生育委員會、衛生部、文化部等參與領導，製定全國家教工作的計劃和原則；地方省、市都設有婦女兒童工作委員會(或領導小組)，經常召集婦聯、教育等部門一起規劃和組織地方家教工作。

第二，研究系統　目前從中央到地方縣區都有依托婦聯的家教研究會，研究會理事主要由當地有關部門負責人和教育、衛生專家擔任。另外，一些教育、心理、衛生、社會問題研究機構也承擔了家教研究的任務。

第三，培訓系統　目前大陸有28萬所各種類型的家長學校，形成了新婚夫婦學校和孕婦學校、小學生、中學生及學前幼兒的家長學校，特殊兒童(失足、聾啞等)家長學校和特殊家庭(離婚重建、單親家庭等)家長學校，廣播電視父母學校，函授家長學校等培訓系統。其中，四川省廣播父母學校辦學11年中接受1400萬人次的學習。另外，大陸還有8500個家教諮詢站。

但目前中國大陸專職的家教工作人員甚少，多數家教工作人員是來自教育界、衛生界、新聞界、文化界的兼職者，雖然有較高的工作熱情，但個人素質參差不齊，且精力有限。另外，多數家教工作是不收費或低收費的，家教會經費短缺，開展活動受限製。

4、家教研究與普及工作狀況

第一，研究概況　80年代后期以來，中國大陸家教研究相當活躍，涉及較多的課題是家庭德育、早期教育、獨生子女教育、家長素質、家教課題、家長學校管理。中國家教會成立以來多次舉行全國性研討會，5年間收到32個團體會員統計的近萬篇論文、報告。

第二，普及概況　中國大陸家教知識的普及工作非常成功，除了通過家長學校培訓家長外，目前大陸各地辦有140余種家教科普讀物，訂購數都很可觀，如杭州的《家庭教育月刊》有訂戶40萬，廣州的《現代家長報》(半月報)有訂戶35萬。80年代家教知識書籍也十分暢銷，僅北京市家教會及其成員1982-1991年間出版的21種家教著作就累計發行160萬冊。

5、家長教子水平與家長教育素質狀況

第一，家長教子水平　對中國大陸家長教子水平，筆者難以做出全面的準確的估價，這裡僅談兩點：一是近年來大陸兒童家長教子水平逐漸提高，越來越多的家長能夠用合理的要求、民主的態度、合適的內容與方法教育子女，出現了一些教子成才的優秀家長，這在家教工作先進單位更為普遍，如武漢市某小學的400名學生家長參加一年的家長學校學習后，74.4%的家長自評其教子水平大有提高。二是目前還比較普遍地存在著家教誤區，真正能夠科學地教育子女的家長比例還不高，有的研究歸納出十大家教誤區：知識傳授多、智力開發少、驕慣寵愛多、嚴格要求少、物質滿足多、精神給予少、希望期望多、因材施教少、身體關心多、心理指導少、關心智力因素多、培養非智力因素少、硬性灌輸多、啟發誘導少、腦力勞動多、體力勞動少、家長分歧多、統一教少、個人著想多、社會著想少。

第二，家長教育素質　家長教育素質指家長教育子女必備的基本條件，包括教子成才的責任心、一定的科學文化知識、一定的科學育兒知識、較強的教育能力、良好的心理素質。對中國大陸兒童家長教育素質的估價，這裡僅談兩點：一是各位家長的教育素質存在著較大的差異，有的家長能夠在家庭收入指標的情況下把孩子培養成才，也有的家長有意或無意中把孩子引向了邪路。二是多數家長的教育素質不夠高，常常感到沒有能力教育子女。1996年《中國婦女報》組織的一次問卷調查中，80%左右的家長承認自己在家教中失敗，近20%的家長表示缺少教育方法。

四、結論與建議

1.結論

第一，改革開放以來中國大陸的家教事業取得了長足的進步。拿90年代中期和80年代初期的家教事業狀況相比，完全可以說「馬槍換炮」。今非昔比。目前大陸的家教和家教工作已經進入社會生活的各個領域和多個層面，成為一項重要的社會事業而受到社會各界和多數民眾的重視。

第二，目前中國大陸的家教事業進入了平穩發展的階段。從80年代初期起，大陸家教事業發展的規模和速度是相當驚人的，最近兩三年發展的勢頭有所緩和，目前許多地方正根據《全國家庭教育工作「九五」計劃》

準《全國家庭教育工作評估指標》的要求進行調整，努力提高家教工作的質量和效益。

第三，未來中國大陸家教事業的新飛躍需要較長時間的努力。鑒于目前大陸家教事業發展中出現的種種問題，和社會所能提供的條件，要在短期內提高家長素質、建全家教工作體製是相當困難的，中國大陸家教事業的新飛躍極有可能在下個世紀初年，但實現飛躍需要大們付出新的努力。

2.建議

為了推動中國大陸家教事業的進一步發展，筆者建議有關部門研究並采取以下幾項措施：

第一，加強和改進家教工作的管理。家教工作是一項涉及千家萬戶的重大社會事業，要使各方面的積極性得到充分發揮，政府的統籌作用是不可少的，通過法律規范家庭教育和家教工作是非常必要的。目前應在繼續發揮婦聯和各級家教會作用的同時，特別注意發揮教育、衛生等部門及其專家的作用。

第二，鼓勵和支持家教事業的產業化和半產業化。開展家教工作需要一定的人力、財力投入，而政府又不可能提供足夠的經費。應當認真研究各種家教工作的性質、特點，按照市場經濟的原則確定家教工作的取酬標準和取酬方式。還要鼓勵一部分單位和個人以家教工作為謀生手段，擴大專職家教工作者隊伍。

第三，重視和支持家教和家教工作的科學研究。家長教子水平的提高和家教工作水平的提高，都離不開科學理論的指導。應當下大力氣組建正規的家教研究機構、創辦專門的家教學術刊物，吸引和支持多學科專家投身家教和家教工作研究。還應當認真總結十多年來家教和家教工作研究的成果，規劃新的研究課題，組織專家聯合攻關，並及時推廣家教和家教工作的新觀念、新方法。

第四，積極開展家教和家教工作的對外交流活動。中國大陸家教事業的進步發展，還必須借鑒海外的經驗，使自己的家教和家教工作同當代世界家教發展的潮流相一致。應當同海外同仁交朋友，尤其是對以華人為主導的國家或地區的家教經驗和家教工作經驗更要認真學習，取人之長為我所用。

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香港中小學科學課程之未來發展與特色

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本文目的是探討香港中小學科學課程在現階段和朝向廿一世紀的發展，世界科學教育的主要潮流是甚麼？是否有普世性的新方向？若有的話，香港能否作出相應的配合呢？

香港現時約已開展數項科學課程的革新。小學方面：於1996年實施了綜合的常識科課程，它把社會、科學、健教三科綜合為一，而在科學部份則強調「科學、技術與社會」的關係和有關環境的課題。中學方面：新的初中綜合科學課程將於公元二千年實施，強調科學的探討，藉以發展學生在科學探究技巧上的能力，並有考慮到小學與中學科學課程的銜接；高中科學課程在日後修訂時，探討性課題（包括科技對社會及環境的影響）和科學探究技巧的滲透會成為重點。另一重點乃是資訊科技發育，現時香港政府正全力向中小學推廣。

Future Development and Characteristics of Science Curricula in Hong Kong Secondary and Primary Schools

This paper intends to look at what is happening and what will happen in the Hong Kong primary and secondary science curricula from now to the years beyond 2000. What are the major trends in the world about science education? Are there any new global directions? If yes, is Hong Kong ready for the change?

There are several innovative curriculum projects being initiated in Hong Kong. In primary education, a new General Studies (GS) curriculum has been implemented in 1996, emphasizing on the integration of 3 primary subjects: Science, Social Studies and Health Education. In the science component of GS, more emphases have been placed on the inter-relationship between STS as well as issues concerning our environment. In secondary education, a new Integrated Science syllabus has been developed recently for implementation in the year 2000, placing strong emphasis on science investigative work which develops students' proficiencies in science process skills, and paying due respect to vertical integration between GS and IS. In other science subjects at higher levels, investigative work involving process skills and studies on the impact of Science and technology on society and environment constitute significant elements in the future revised curricula. Another hot topic is Information Technology Education, currently the Hong Kong Government is in full swing to promote it to secondary and primary schools.

香港教育制度的回顧

在早期的香港歷史，教育體系自由發展，政府並無主宰或指引。這種自由政策是因為當時大部份的學校都是私營或由教會創辦(Wong，1980)。其後，政府之承擔及控制亦慢慢增加(Sweeting，1990)。自1842年英國政府管治香港，最初之一百年是採取精英教育，直至第二次世界大戰香港重光後才推行普及教育。

在六十及七十年代，香港之教育經歷了急速之發展，在結構上亦有改變。小學六年免費教育於1971年實施，而九年全港性免費、強迫及普及教育至中學三年級亦於1978年落實。政府的九年免費教育政策是要惠及全港學童，核心課程由是制定。在小學裏修讀科學(於1996年起綜合成常識科)和在初中修讀綜合科學都是核心課程，所有學童必需修讀。不過學校仍可自由詮釋課程及選用最適合學童之教學法。(Education Commission，1990)

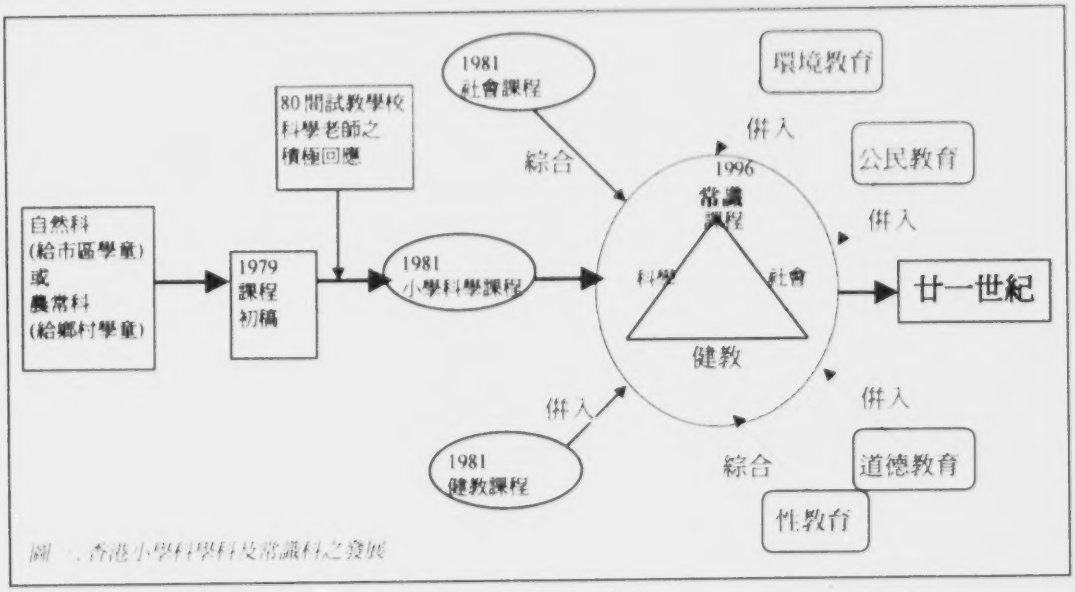
小學科學及常識科的發展

教育署的課程及課本委員會於1952年成立後漸漸發展了幾套小學課程，包括為市區學童的自然科和為鄉村學童的農業科(林，1995)。這項指引沿用了大約二十年。於1979年課程發展委員會編制了小學科學科課程，經過在六十間小學試教後，正式於1981年實施。

教統會第4號報告書(1990)指出課程出現問題是因

為學校不同課程的分割。為了減輕這個問題，課程發展者將小學其中三科綜合成為常識科，自於1996年推行，並得到很多小學的採用。

根據課程發展委員會(CDC，1993)的建議，將社會、科學、健教三科綜合成為常識科，不單簡化了相似的課程，更容許學童在不同的角度觀察事物，從而有個整體的學習經驗。此課程的另一項優點是包容跨課程的主題，例如：環境教育、公民教育、倫理道德教育及性教育。有關香港小學科學的發展請見圖一。



圖一：香港小學科學科及常識科之發展

常識科課程包括有四個主要內容範疇：健康生活、健康環境、自然世界、和科學與科技。若細心分析這四個範疇的內容，就會發現社會、科學和健教這三科傳統的影子仍然明顯。常識科看來不算是將三科綜合，而只是混合吧了(So et al., 1996)。

表一列出一至六年級常識科的節數。在生活環境的範疇中是比較側重社會課程，而在自然世界、和科學與科技則比較側重科學課程。

雖然在課程的發展上對贊成綜合的學者而言可說未如理想，但對科學教育工作者而言則感到仍有發揮空間，因為在自然世界、和科學與科技這兩個範疇可以保留科學的特式。此外，在健康生活的範疇上卻可保留頗大比重的生物學知識。

表二：科學（科）、健教（健）、及社會（社）的節數大致分配情況

	健康的生活	科	健	社	總數	生活環境	科	健	社	總數	自然世界	科	健	社	總數	科學與科技	科	健	社	總數
小一	我的身體	8	8	4	20	我的家	0	10	14	24	生物和非生物	12	0	0	12	科學初探	14	0	0	14
	良好的習慣	2	16	2	20	我們的學校	0	0	20	20	星星、月亮、太陽	16	0	0	16					
	我喜愛的活動	0	5	9	14	公園	3	3	6	12										
小二	個人衛生	0	14	0	14	為我們服務的人	0	0	22	22	動物世界	15	2	1	18	熱	8	2	0	10
	我喜愛的食物	5	17	0	22	我的朋友	0	0	16	16	天氣	8	4	4	16					
	我喜愛的玩具	7	6	7	20															
	善用餘暇	2	6	8	16															
小三	運動和休息	2	9	3	14	我們的社區	0	2	18	20	植物世界	10	1	1	12	光和顏色	18	0	0	18
	常見的疾病	7	8	1	16	購物好去處	0	0	26	26						水	10	2	6	18
						生活的基本需要	8	4	14	26										
小四	食物和營養	17	4	1	22	我們的社會	0	0	14	14	地球	10	0	0	10	空氣	18	1	1	20
	奇妙的身體	17	1	0	18	社會服務	1	4	17	22						電與生活	10	1	1	12
	心理與社群健康	0	6	10	16	香港地理環境與歷史	8	0	12	20										
小五	救急扶危	0	15	3	18	我們的政府	0	0	16	16	資源和環境	6	1	9	16	資訊科技	5	0	5	10
	踏上青春路	11	3	0	14	香港的經濟發展	0	0	18	18	生物的繁殖	20	0	0	20					
	預防勝於治療	11	5	2	18	香港與中國：地理、歷史	5	0	15	20	0									
小六	社區健康	2	2	10	14	香港與中國：政治、經濟	0	0	14	14	天文現象	16	0	0	16	力和簡單機械	15	1	0	16
	藥物的認識	7	8	3	18	放眼世界	10	0	12	22	生物與環境	16	0	0	16	宇宙和太空	15	0	1	16
											保護環境	10	5	5	20					
縱向總數		**98**	**133**	**63**	**294**		**35**	**23**	**254**	**312**		**139**	**13**	**20**	**172**		**113**	**7**	**14**	**134**

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英國國立科學課程

由於香港的小學課程設立了常識科，對科學訓練卻相應忽視，這是頗令人憂慮的。在對香港的科學教育前景妄下結論之前，應先與其他國家比較小學科學課程的架構、目的和內容。英國國立科學課程是一個核心課程的明顯例子，所有由五歲至十六歲的學童都必須修讀(Department of Education，1995)。這課程有較詳盡的研究技巧，更具組織的教學目的和更明細的實現目標。它提供了一套內容及技巧的架構以學習不同的課題，共分四個階段，相當於5-7，7-11，11-14，和14-16歲。至於量度學生表現的程度則分為八級。實現目標共分四項：1. 實驗和研究技巧，2. 生活過程與生物，3. 物質及其性質，4. 自然的過程。一位小學畢業生應能完成實現目標的一和二級及達致部份第三級，以延續至中學階段。因此，由小學過渡至中學是連貫和順利的。

英國國立科學課程強調實驗和研究技巧，此舉是值得重視的。學童發展智能與實踐技巧是被認為非常重要，因為這能幫助他們探討科學的世界。這有賴於一些有助研究的活動，例如：1. 發問，預測和假設；2. 觀察，量度和操縱變數；3. 解釋結果和評估科學証據。修讀科學的學童就如科學家一樣，對事物的瞭解有賴於在新環境驗証現存的觀念。英國國立科學課程的實現目標第一項就是要透過科學探討去訓練學生發展其自立及自學的能力。

此外，國立科學課程更有很多輔助證物，能提供有計劃的學習及評審活動，例如：Collins Primary Science Series (Howe，1993) 及 New Oxford Workbooks Series (Aldridge and Dampney，1996)。其他作業簿有 At Home with Science Series (Hall，1992) 及 Nuffield Primary Science SPACE Series (Collins Educational，1995)，都是很有用的參考證物。這課程對老師的質素要求甚高，惟課程欠缺靈活性。

美國2061方案

美國的科學課程改革與在美國的情況頗為不同。由美國科學促進協會推動的2061方案，規範學童應達致某種程度，而又容許每用及每個校區有課程的靈活性。根據該協會(AAAS，1993)解釋：2061方案之目的並非要為由幼稚園至高中提供數以百計的課程組合，而是要為各國的課程設計者提供一些有幫助的例子。當高質素的課程例子出現時，將會不斷選入資料庫以備採用。

本地的常識科

比較英美兩者，香港的小學常識科雖然較英國國立科學課程所能提供給老師的教學資源為少，而香港由上而下的教育政策(指定的課程綱要，教科書和教育電視等)也比較美國的2061方案缺乏課程的彈性。但在表面看來，這常識科課程較為易於掌握明白，而老師亦可就著校本計劃，把單元內容加以適當的剪裁，以配合國際趨勢。常識科在國際趨勢本土化時，是有以下的特色：跨學科取向、螺旋式課程、科學探究技巧、和「科技與社會 (STS)教學取向」。

跨學科教學取向 (Interdisciplinary Approach)

常識科將以前小學三科：社會、科學、健教綜合為一，但綜合之層面頗有局限。現時香港教育學院亦在小學師訓課程尤其是小學教育學位課程編寫與學科教學取向有關單元，特別強調學生透過探究方法去研習跨學科主題內的有關概念。

螺旋式課程 (Spiral Curriculum)

值得一提的，以前小學科學課程的螺旋式本質仍然有所保留，例如：在小學一年級及四年級都有關於電的課題。對於有關植物的認識，小學一年級認識一些普通植物，而小學三年級則學習植物生長的因素。有關植物營養和生殖則在小學四、五年級都會學習。在常識科，螺旋式設計的例子還是有的，但比較起小學科學科則尚有差距。這是因為主題教學法令到某些課題在課程中只能出現一次。例如：天氣和熱這兩個課題只在小學二年級出現過，而天文現象這課題則只在小學六年級出現過。因此學童在小學三、四、五年級便缺乏學習天文氣象的機會，這會令那些習慣了採取循序漸進方式以訓練學生認知能力的老師感難適應。

科學探究技巧 (Science Process Skills)

如前所述，科學探究技巧在英國的國家課程是很受重視的。在香港情況又如何呢？若我們細心的分析常識科課程和一些課本，就能鑑別出提供學童應用科學探究技巧的一些教學活動，例如：觀察、傳意、分類、推論、預測和實驗。在低年班則較為強調觀察、傳意和分類，而在較高年班則可訓練操縱變項和設計實驗。在小一的科學初探單元裏，學生在聲音這課題有機會練習一些基本的探究技巧，例如：觀察和推論。在小二的動物分類這課題，學生也可以練習觀察和分類這些技巧。在小四的空氣單元裏，特別是有關鐵的氧化這課題，學生

有機會設計簡單的實驗。最後，在小六的力和簡單機械這單元裏，學生有機會設計簡單的機械模型。雖然以上所舉出的例子說明在常識科課程裏學生有機會練習科學探究技巧，但科學教育工作者卻對所提供訓練技巧之程度不太滿意，亦認為課程發展者在常識科課程指引上未有全力地去強調探究技巧。

有見及此，香港教育學院科學系推動了一個名為"小學探究活動"的計劃，以均衡小學常識科裏有關科學理論與探究兩方面的比例。現在一般的常識科教科書只著重理論的講述，但單靠理論的詮釋，是不能夠幫助學生從中學習到相關的探究技巧及正確的科學態度。故此，他們希望能透過這個計劃，把科學探究活動伸展至香港小學常識科課堂裏。在這計劃內，他們就常識科中各有關科學的單元，設計了多項探究活動，以輔助或補充現有的實驗活動。他們曾向一百位小學常識科教師推介這些活動，得到不俗的反應（Lee et al., 1998）。而未來計劃尚包括「科學探究」教師工作坊，以推介科學探究活動（98年12月）、舉辦校本科學探究支援計劃（99年1至5月），以及舉辦小學生科學探究日營（99年7月）等。

第三屆國際數理研究（TIMSS）的結果反映出香港小學四年級學生的表現，與表現得最優良（如韓國和日本）的國家比較，香港學生平均的表現都是低過或接近最差的25%（25 percentile）。而且，當中只有首5%的學生能夠與首25%的韓國學生相比。就平均的比例分數而言，雖然香港學生的表現是很接近國際的平均分數，但香港學生能達到最高成就水平的比率是很低的：與各國比較，只有4%的小學四年級學生能達到首10%的水平，相只有17%能達到首四分之一的水平。這意味著香港最優秀學生的表現，與其它國家的優秀學生比較都缺乏了競爭性。香港小學四年級學生在地球科學和生命科學項目中都表現較好，但是他們在環境問題和自然科學方面都表現得顯著偏低。就測試成績表現而言，香港學生似乎在以下項目做得不錯：測試使用工具或常規程序及一些需要應用科學原理去解決數目上的問題。相反，他們對於那些需要明白複雜資料和應用科學原理去解釋方面，都表現得較差（Law，1997）。因此，若要提高香港學生的科學水準，應在小學時在各科學範疇方面加強學生訓練，尤其是儘早培養他們的科學處理技巧。此外，為了要提高香港學生在世界測試的成績，也要加強他們對外國生態環境的認知。

科技與社會　教學取向

若對大部份「科技與社會」課程的本質和理論架構加以思想，便發覺到常識科課程其實提供了大量的機會給老師去建立有關的教學策略，去幫助教授與「科技與社會」有關的單元，例如：小六的保護環境和放眼世界。在生活環境範疇的放眼世界單元裏，老師有很多機會去將科技進展對社會的正面影響介紹給學生，例如以科技提高世界食物的生產有助紓援糧食短缺的問題。同樣地，科技進展對環境和健康的負面影響也可以在保護環境單元去對學生加以講解。小五也有不少與「科技與社會」有關的課題，例如在自然世界範疇的資源和環境單元，以及在科學與科技範疇的資訊科技單元。在以上的例子，學生必須要參與學習的過程，包括搜集和分析資料，以及去表達和分享他們對與人類有切身關係問題的感受。老師自是要設計多樣化和有相關的學習活動去幫助學童獲得觀察、分析、探討和解決問題等技能。此外，令學生呈交企劃和參與報告都是有用的方法去評估其技能。若能選取與「科技與社會」有關的課題則更為適宜。若要有效地推行「科技與社會」教學法，小學老師有必要透過合宜的訓練去認識到「科技與社會」課程的本質和理論背景，從而應用有關的教學策略。

多媒體技術與常識科的教學

香港教育工作者（Law，1998）亦設計一些圖像模擬軟件工具，《模擬世界》（Worldmaker）。他們在研討會上積極介紹教師們如何透過《模擬世界》產生的模擬遊戲來教授小學常識科食者對維持生態平衡的關係，生物種類多樣性，由大的蔓延和控制都能通過一些模擬遊戲的探索活等幫助學生的學習興趣和加深理解。香港政府剝下正全力發展資訊科技教育，短期內亦會由中學推廣至小學。

常識科的教學策略

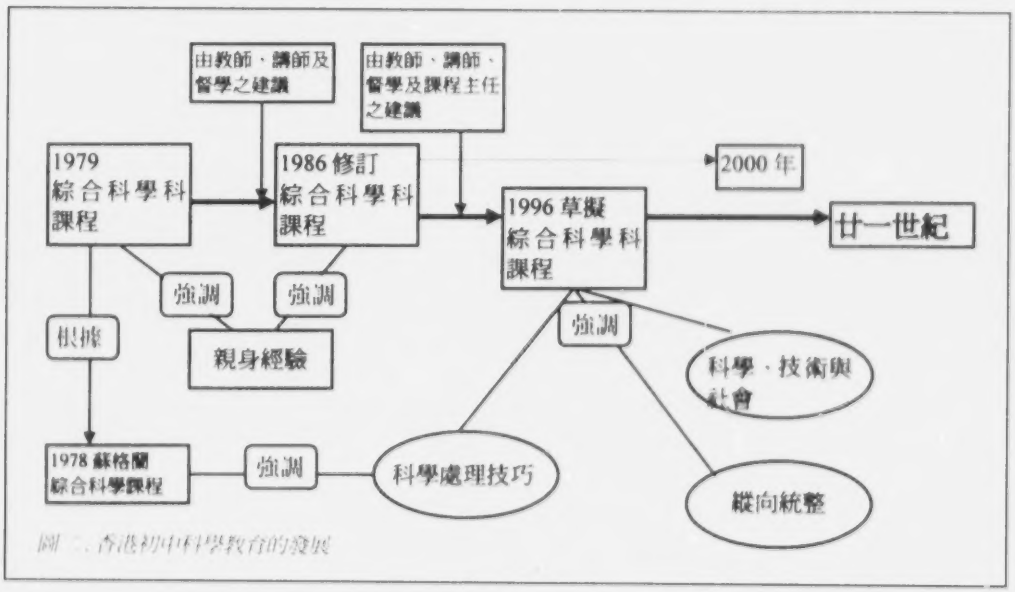
根據香港課程發展議會於1994年編訂的常識科課程綱要，有不少的教學策略可以應用於教授科學及「科技與社會」有關的課題，以及加強綜合的精神。表二列出一些主要的常識科教學策略。

表二：常識科的教學策略

常識科的教學策略	目的
概念	
概念圖	將重要觀念有系統地表達出來，同時可作為課程統整之指引
教師角色	
教師是教導者	傳授學識和資訊
教師是輔助者	輔導學生去獨立地進行學習活動，維繫學生的興趣，及發掘他們的潛能
教師是觀察者	知道何時調解及何時容讓學生自由發揮
教師要持有開明的態度	多樣化地選用教學法，彈性地將學生分組
學生角色	
活動以學生為中心	讓學生積極參與有意義的學習活動
活動	
活動包括觀察、訪問、個案研習、小組討論、報告、角色扮演、實驗、企劃和遊戲 以外活動例如實地考察和參觀	加強學生對課題的認識，培養他們表達、觀察、思考、創造和判斷的能力，學習氣氛樂融合作，包容和彼此尊重 刺激學童的學習和求知慾，培養其自我約束、自我控制、對學校的歸屬感及鼓勵主動參與

初中科學課程的發展

圖二顯示初中科學科程的發展。於1979年，香港根據1978年蘇格蘭綜合科學課程發展了本地的綜合科學課程。此課程在當時而言頗算革新了，其精粹為初中學生應透過實驗去學習科學，它強調了「視手為腦」的精神和引導性發現式教學法。



圖二：香港初中科學教育的發展

此課程於1986年修訂後，將會沿用至公元二千年。修訂時曾採納有經驗之本地教師、講師、及教育署督學之建議，其成果是所設計之教學活動是更能實際地配合本地之情況。在實驗設計方面也頗有新意。在中二的教學單元內容上也作了一些修改，例如刪除了微生物、環境和保護等課題，在電與電子的單元上則引進了電子這課題。除了這些改變外，其他基本課題與前一版本相差不大。

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早於1978年，政府頒佈的綜合科學課程發展手冊已強調科學處理技巧一目，而課程都強調過程與概念兩部分，並排出現於課程指引上，可作科學老師備課時的檢查清單。科學探究技巧包括觀察、分類、量度、傳意、推論、預測、下定義、設假設、解釋數據、操縱變項和進行實驗。在課程手冊的章節都安排了實驗，是希望多投放實處理技巧。課程也減少強調事實內容和避免不必要的背誦。然而，在現行課程，科學探究技巧仍然未受重視，這可能是因為本地科學教師本身明瞭其背景、原理、連作和意義吧。要像英國的國家科學課程那樣詳述探究技巧，看來本港還得要費一番努力呢。

要配合新紀元，綜合科學課程曾作大幅修訂。香港課程發展議會於1996年將草擬好之課程向教育界諮詢。草擬時曾採納有關之本地教師、大學講師、課程主任及教育科學之良好建議，並參考世界趨勢和本地科學教育的需要。透過此1996年綜合科學課程的一些特色，我們可以洞悉香港科學教育朝往廿一世紀時之一般趨勢。

「科技與社會」（STS）教學法

新課程強調科學教育與科技應用、社會問題和學生日常生活之間的聯繫。它引進了頗多有STS特色的活動，令到學習科學時更為有趣生動。對於某些課題，例如社會問題，是可以透過一些以學生為中心及師生互相作用等方法令到學童得到適當學習經驗的。採用主動學習法可令學生參與更廣泛的活動，例如：計劃、模擬、處理數據、扮角色扮演……曾參與修訂此課程的人士表示，課程發展者對引進STS特色和活動都能達致共識，但對其多寡程度則存著不同的意見。

銜接的統整

當修訂課程時，對其與香港經評加考處、以前與科學教育由中學進深至中學時有一定的連貫性。在小學程度，由於常識科已經取代小學科學科，前者將會負起責任去訓練小學生的基本科學知識和技能。在初中，以前的綜合科學課程是頗為著重認識概念的。每一單元都注重滾輸科學觀念。為了要達成銜接統整，以前的小學科學課程已改變成常識科，初中的科學科內容也作了大幅的修改。此外還增加了例如STS等有關的課題。整體而言，科學教育由小學進深至中學的銜接統整會是受到課程發展者小心監察，使科學課程內容和有關科技和技巧能夠順序漸進，由淺入深地發展。

科學探究技巧

科學探究技巧在探究式教學的角色是受到重視的。這教學法包括教導學生如何去界定問題，設計能找出答案的實驗，進行實驗和解釋結果。在綜合科學科過去的兩個課程版本都有突出了探究式教學法的重要性，但卻很少提及探究時需用到的技巧。然而，在1996年的修訂課程裏，這些技巧不單只在導言中大幅提及，在附錄中還加插了在課程上所強調過每項技巧的補充說明。課程發展者希望學生能夠有效地發展以下的技巧：觀察、傳意、分類、處理實驗儀器、溝通、推論、預測、設定假設、解釋數據和操縱變項。這些技巧都對科學的探究是有幫助的。在第三屆國際數理研究（TIMSS）中，香港學生所取得的成績未符理想。在測試學生能否明白複雜資訊、應用科學原理去解釋和設計研究等方面，香港中二及中三學生的表現均令人失望（Law，1996）；這也可能和老師的訓練有關。看來要老師完全和正確地掌握這種探究式過程的基本要素也應該是時候了。

高中科學課程的發展

在初中綜合科學課程所採用的探究式教學法對高年級的公開考試課程有很大的衝擊。此後，香港中學會考（HKCEE）和香港高級程度會考（HKAL E）的理科考卷都出了不少有關科學實驗的試題。例如：為了要令生物科名正言順地稱為科學，很多試題都測驗考實驗步驟、結果和結論。由於公開考試加進了實驗，令到老師和學生要在一年半內完成理科課程，實在是很吃力的。正如程介明教授曾說：「公開試就是香港課程的唯一準繩，通常該課題若是不考就不會教（Cheng，1988）。因此高中的教學課程是很受考試課程左右的。

所以，由課程發展處和香港考試局所制訂的課程實際決定了高中的教學。然而這些課程也多少受到國際和本地趨勢所影響的。朝向廿一世紀的高中課程是具有以下幾項特色：

探究式教學法

在中四、五年級進行實驗時的學生態度令到科學教育工作者頗為關注，因為他們做實驗時，很少真正有機會去界定所面對的問題，反而像是食譜，機械地跟足實驗的步驟（Yung，1996）。為了要大力推動處理技巧而非課文知識，高級程度也加強了探究的技巧。例如：生物科教師評審制（TAS）已從1998年起作了數處修訂，令到

高級及高級補充程度的考生要熟悉沒有實驗指引的活動。實驗工作報告部份由滿分30分減至15分，而為了要增加探究技巧的分數，個人研究報告完全刪除，而個人實地考察研究報告則簡化為「小組報告」或甚至「實地考察經驗證明」。當不少理科教師認為個人報告其實是訓練獨立研究的極佳活動，但課程改變仍然一意執行，是基於以下的論據：1) 個人報告的類別太多，不能作有效的評估，2) 個人報告不能反映學生對生物的親善態度。科學教育工作者希望探究技巧並能在中四、五時加以重視。然而，這有賴課程發展處的科學課程主任是否努力和科學老師是否願意去推動這些技巧了。

「科技與社會」(STS)教學法

物理、化學和生物科在傳統上在本港都是認為是純理科，直至八十年代當本地的科學課程受到STS教學法所影響。這教學法是受到美國國家科學教師協會(NSTA)和英國的科技在社會(SATIS)計劃所採用。在本港，例如生物科，STS的採用主要是在中五會考(CE)、高級補充程度(ASL)和高級程度課程(AL)裏包含一些與科技有關的課題(Pang and Cheung，1996)。AS生物課程是比較先進的了，他包括了很多此類課題，例如遺傳工程學，利用微生物製造食物，將微生物技術用於農業、醫學、工業和控制污染。為了剛往廿一世紀，生物科AS和AL課程都會經歷重大修訂，而前者將會包容於後者。希望透過如期安排，能包括很多與STS有關的課題。彭張琦位認為，生物科教師可透過將日常有興趣的課題將生物和科技的點滴知識聯繫起來，豐富科技教育的資料。

與STS教學法有關的是由羅氏等(Law et al.，1996)所設立的「科學是有興趣和有生氣的學習經驗」(SMILE)課程。它是透過與科技有關的每日生活去引起學生學習科學的興趣。盧氏(Lo，1996)對此課程甚為推崇。聲稱在香港之化學教育歷史裏，SMILE是繼「知識傳授期」和「探究教學期」之後的教學法第三期。可是這發展可能會昇起成為重大的課程革新。

多媒體技術

最近，電子計算機科技之急劇進展吸引了不少教育工作者，包括了科學教師。例如：在生物學，解剖老鼠之技巧可用一套能相互作用，以CD-ROM為本的套件組合將過程描錄起來(Chan and Ngai，1996)；在物理學，電子計算機之模擬系統能提供學生模擬操縱一力與動力的微型世界(Cao，1996)和「電路模擬程式」(Wong，1996)。其實，多媒體技術在科學教育的應用是數之不盡的。況且，互聯網也可用以訓練理科學生呢(Yeung and Ng，1996)。例如香港教育學院科學系議師(Yeung, Ng and Kwok)正研用多媒體虛驗裝置以取代傳統之貯用式示波器，去探索聲波的實驗觀察。

結論

學者指出，在科學認知能力之比賽中，香港之足跑輸美國(Day，1996)，而在世界科學成績測試中，香港更論落至排名第十六位(Law，1996)。本地科學教育的改革似乎在所難免了。

本文指出香港經歷了數個科學課程的革新。於1996年在小學實施了嶄新的常識科課程，它把社會、科學、健教、科綜合為一，而在科學部份則強調「科學、技術與社會」的關係和有關環境的課題。對此改變，一般的反應尚好，惟在科學處理技術方面尚可加強。亦有不少建議論及應如何將大科學處理技術去教授常識科的科學課題。新的綜合科學課程亦準備就緒，將於公元二千年實施。新課程強調科學的探討，藉以發展學生對科學處理技術的能力。此外，在課程發展過程中，亦考慮到小學與中學科學課程的銜接。一般相信在課程中增加科學性探討能幫助初中學生發展其科學技能、態度與知識，在日後高中科學課程修訂時，探討性課題，包括科技對社會及環境的影響並科學處理技術，將會成為重點。而資訊科技的發展，一日千里，其對教育的重大影響可拭目以待。政府有見及此已全力向中小學加強資訊科技教育。

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Implementing Language Teaching Innovations in Hong Kong: the Case of the Bridge Program

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In response to recommendations of Education Commission Report 4, the Hong Kong Government Education Department sponsored a Bridge Program targeted on the 30% (estimated) of the secondary school population deemed able to profit from having English medium instruction (EMI) for the whole curriculum. A concerted effort was mounted by some publishers and educational organizations to design the three-month curriculum, and to produce texts and training programs for teachers. As with so many previous educational initiatives in Hong Kong, it is the implementation that has proved hazardous. On the basis of interviews with teachers, and with others involved in the implementation of this program, we suggest reasons why an innovatory initiative has met with resistance. Why is it difficult to get good educational ideas off the ground in Hong Kong? Are there some inherent defects in the system? These questions are particularly relevant today as the Government's policy on Chinese medium instruction (CMI) - the other side of a clear-cut language policy - has once again met with resistance from some schools, teachers and students.

實施香港語言教學的創新計劃:英語銜接課程

香港政府教育署曾應教統會第四號報告書中提出的建議，資助了一項銜接小學與中學的計劃，對象為能從英語教學媒介學習全部課程獲益的百分之三十(估計數字)中學生。幾家出版社及教育機構通力合作，設計了一個以英語銜接課程為主，並為教師制作教材和師資培訓的計劃。如以往許多的香港教育改革計劃般，這項計劃在多方面之執行出現問題。本文作者就與教師及其他參與實施這項計劃的人士的會談，提出計劃在推行時遇到困難的原因。為什麼在香港實施教育理想如此困難？是否教育制度本身存在缺陷？本文在今天香港特區政府實施以英語教學政策的時候，又到來自學校、教師及學生的支持聲中，這些問題尤其重要。

Introduction

Talk in English to a taxi driver or to a university student in Hong Kong and the chances are that you will be met with a stare of blank incomprehension. Why? Hong Kong is a cosmopolitan city; it thrives on servicing international commerce; it is a trade conduit between East and West; there are street signs, films, newspapers, television programs in English -- all easily accessible resources which are not fully exploited. English is a compulsory subject in primary and secondary schools and most secondary subject textbooks are in English, yet it plays little everyday communicative role in or outside school and the general standard of English is perceptibly poor. Many explanations for this have been put forward. But the bottom line is that, in the case of language education and training, the system has failed to deliver the expected results which many in our community wish to see. This is not for want of good educational ideas -- many of them have been put forward in recent years. Sometimes such ideas are received with enthusiasm yet, in the end, they fail to get carried through. There are various fundamental problems that need to be addressed. Educationalists will be familiar with many of these: large class size, lack of trained English teachers, oppressive workload and inadequate support for professional development. One could also question how realistic our community's expectations are.

In this paper, we look at one recent example of initiatives not getting carried through -- the implementation of a "Bridge Program", designed to help children at the beginning of secondary school to reach a linguistic standard sufficient to enable them to pursue their school studies in the

medium of English. We report a survey of the views of teachers who have participated in the program. The theoretical underpinning of this immersion program was sound. A great deal of time and money was expended in producing suitable textbook materials and training programs. Yet, to date, uptake has been poor.

It appears that it is still the Government's stated policy that CMI (Chinese medium instruction) and EMI (English medium instruction) should run in tandem, but the present policy is that CMI should be given priority since the majority of teachers and students simply cannot teach and learn effectively in English. Those schools that wish to retain EMI have to demonstrate, among other things, that at least 85% of their Secondary One intake are capable of learning effectively in English. At the time of writing, more than 20 schools have been refused permission to continue with EMI, and this has led to acrimony: teachers, parents and students feel that they have been unfairly refused to do what they believe is best for themselves. The problems with the implementation of this policy have been widely publicized and will not be discussed in this paper. The general point we are making is that successful implementation of any policy requires a fair and realistic mechanism which is devised in conjunction with schools and teachers, and unless the Education Department is prepared to consult and collaborate with teachers, then any innovatory initiative is unlikely to succeed. In other words, an education policy has to be theoretically sound, but it also needs to be economically, politically and practically sound.

One can remain optimistic that what the past government failed to achieve -- a young population with a significant proportion of genuinely bilingual or trilingual speakers -- the SAR (Special Administrative Region) government may deliver, on the reasonable assumption that it has a clear perception of Hong Kong's needs and is firmly committed to a policy of promoting excellence in languages (including English) as a means of ensuring that young people in Hong Kong will be able to communicate personally and professionally, in international, multicultural and multiethnic settings.

Background to the Bridge Program

Many Hong Kong secondary schools began to use English as the medium of instruction in the late 60's and early 70's, at a time when Hong Kong was emerging as a major trading centre. This total immersion seemed to be the best way to learn English when secondary education was a more elite affair. Few people complained because this system produced a small bilingual group who could deal with the outside world effectively in English. But with the extension of secondary and higher education franchise, this policy began to fail to meet the educational needs of most students. Today, the majority of students have trouble learning in a language they rarely use outside school. Not being able to easily comprehend their textbooks and the language in which they are instructed results in an impoverishment of students' educational experience.

In 1986, the Government Education Department declared that it would encourage and help schools to switch back to CMI. But parents and schools did not favour that policy because English proficiency was (and still is) widely regarded as a key to success. In 1994, only about 12% of Hong Kong's 392 secondary schools use Chinese to teach all subjects (Rosario, 1994). The rest claim to be English schools, but in practice, classroom instruction is in Chinese or a mix of Chinese and English; formal elements such as textbooks and examinations are in English. Teachers and students in these schools spend an excessive amount of time with text translation, when page after page is heavily glossed in Chinese (Johnson and Lee, 1987). There is a generally agreed failure to achieve acceptable standards of both Chinese and English (Goldstein and Liu, 1994).

In 1991, the Government approved a language streaming policy which in theory would improve the situation. Aim 8 of the Education and Manpower Branch's (1993) *School Education in Hong Kong: A Statement of Aims* reads: "While schools are free to decide which language -- Chinese or English -- to use as the medium of instruction, they are encouraged to adopt Chinese, since this will in general lead to more effective teaching and learning. They are also expected to make clear and consistent use in each class of either Chinese or English, rather than a mixing of both languages".

In line with what was recommended in Education Commission's (1990) Report No. 4, this language streaming policy states that at the end of primary school, students would be placed in either the Chinese or English stream by means

of a test. This means that 70% of secondary school children would benefit from study in Chinese with English as an ordinary subject while the other 30% could profit from study in English. This 30% (a very rough figure) would theoretically be near the necessary threshold to benefit from learning in English.

In order to make the transition from Chinese to English instruction less painful for the 30% and their teachers, a *three-month* Bridge Program was recommended, this to take place at the beginning of secondary schooling. The Bridge Program was conceived as many things at once. It was envisaged as a series of subject textbooks to be written in easy English and which incorporate an immersion approach. It was also envisaged as a curriculum that teaches some new content as well as recycles what students have already learnt in Primary Six. Recycling in English content that is already familiar is considered a gentle means towards improving proficiency in the language.

According to Keung and Law (1995), the rationale for the Bridge Program has its roots in the "language across the curriculum" approach advocated in the Bullock Report (1975) in the UK. This approach recognizes that language is at the heart of the learning process in each subject and that language teaching should therefore cross over all subjects. English medium teaching and learning also found its justification in successful language immersion programs abroad. Immersion learning is seen as an effective way of achieving high proficiency in a foreign/second language.

The authors of this paper have been involved with writing a series of texts as part of this three-month Bridge Program for Secondary One. These texts are in Integrated Science, Mathematics, English, Economic and Public Affairs, Social Studies, History and Geography. The syllabus in each subject is roughly that of the regular first three months in Secondary One plus some revision of Primary material. These texts aim to ease students into English by using the subject content as the vehicle for English language activities, gradually introducing the student to new grammar and new vocabulary.

We have described elsewhere the theoretical foundations on which the design of this series of textbooks is founded (Goldstein and Liu, 1994). We have also explored the rationale for the seemingly elitist policy of maintaining EMI even for a proportion of the population and the curricular implications of the Bridge Program (Goldstein and Liu, 1995).

In this paper, we shall look at the issues involved in the implementation of the Bridge Program and consider the way forward for building a stronger English language foundation for effective subject learning by Secondary One students identified as suitable for EMI.

Great Initiatives Get Lost -- A Recurring Problem?

An innovation can fail to be adopted by schools or, even if adopted, can fail to be properly implemented in the classroom (Morris, 1996). Among such initiatives in recent years have been the activity approach to learning, cross-curricular guidelines, social studies, liberal studies (adopted by fewer than 10% of schools) and a range of initiatives specifically concerned with language teaching. There are various possible reasons for the failure of an initiative: it could rest on a poor theoretical basis -- or be something that sounds fine in theory, but ill suits the practical needs of the local system. It could be given insufficient support or assigned an unrealistic time-frame by the Education Department. There may have been poor coordination between planners and implementers (teachers), inadequate consultation with teachers at the planning stage as seems to have been the case with the recent proposals for a Target Oriented Curriculum (TOC). Or perhaps teachers, principals or parents simply lack enthusiasm for a new initiative, having become jaundiced by the repeated failures of past ones. Broadly speaking, an initiative may be intrinsically unsound, and therefore doomed to failure, or it might be good and sound, but fail because there is a faulty link (or links) in the complex chain from promulgation to enthusiastic reception in schools.

The Bridge Program was part of the Education Department's response to the perceived general decline of English standards among school children. Immersion learning was seen as an effective way of achieving high proficiency in a foreign/second language and the Bridge Program was a way of facilitating language transfer from Chinese to English among Secondary One students.

The Education Department was supposed to work closely together with the former Institute of Language in Education (ILE), the British Council and a contracted

publisher during the planning, design, writing, trialling, teacher training and final use of the Bridge Program. However, as documented in Knott (1995), the partnership did not materialize and little collaboration took place at any of the stages.

What the Education Department did was to provide special Bridge Program syllabuses written by their subject specialists. Some of these were highly detailed; some were ridiculously flimsy (Knott, 1995). Publishers and authors were then left on their own to produce texts which were supposed to embody an immersion approach and linguistic integration across all subjects. A letter from the Director of Education actually stated that "Work on the preparation of guidelines for schools and on the design of appropriate teacher training activities ... is proceeding quite separately form the work of the publisher." (quoted in Knott, 1995: 226). This lack of collaboration jeopardized the success of the Bridge Program since the so-called teacher training activities (a one-off seminar) did not include the contracted publisher's materials teachers would actually be using as the basis of their lessons. Neither was the Education Department involved in any way in the trialling of the materials. These first texts by the contracted publisher were the only ones available on the market in 1994 — the year the Bridge Program was first adopted in ten schools.

By the end of 1992, it had become clear that the contracted publisher's materials were far from satisfactory: the English used was uncontrolled and perceived as too difficult for most students, and their authors, mainly from overseas, had very little experience of local needs and predilections. An alternative set of texts (see Goldstein and Liu, 1994) was conceived by another publisher with the explicit goal of introducing uniform and tightly controlled English across the curriculum. We can only speak here of the latter program (henceforth we shall refer to this as the "Second Program"). This latter series made its debut one year after that of the contracted publisher. It was an ambitious and innovative program that ought to provide a better learning experience for Secondary One students who are learning through the medium of English.

However, the uptake of both sets of commercial Bridge Program texts has so far been poor and there seems to be a declining interest in implementing it. Part of the reason lies with the contracted publishers' texts which were first out and received very poor reviews, thus predisposing teachers against the Bridge Program. Chan, Hoare and Johnson (1997: 63), whose study of EMI implementation surveyed teachers and students in more than 50 schools, states that "this fact no doubt accounts for the decline in the use of published Bridge Programs".

This is not to say that schools and teachers do not think the Bridge Program is a good idea. On the contrary, our own teacher survey indicates that the need for a bridging program which eases the transfer from CMI to EMI is well recognized. Teachers believe that the Bridge Program is a sound education initiative because they see a gap between Secondary One students' English standard and the texts and English language instruction they are supposed to learn from. They believe that a Bridge Program will help students learn better. In fact, as reported in Chan, Hoare and Johnson (1997), 40% of the schools surveyed used their own teacher-developed materials or adapted regular textbooks for bridging purposes.

Having established that there have been problems at the initial stages of the Bridge Program, we attempted to find out what obstacles lay in the path of its implementation. In order to find the answers, we surveyed both teachers who are using the "Second Program", and those who, having tried the contracted publishers' program, abandoned it.

Survey Findings

The survey instruments used were a questionnaire and in-depth interviews with five teachers. The sample for the questionnaire survey was 60 teachers from 15 schools who had used Bridge Program texts in various subjects. There was a response rate of 44% but only 22 responses were complete and useable.

Table 1 shows the number of teachers for each subject and the numbers who used the different texts. Only three of the teachers have used the "Second Program", and as a result, the findings of the questionnaire survey represent mostly the views of teachers who have used the contracted publisher's texts. This imbalance in the sample is due to the fact that at the time of this survey, the contracted publisher's texts, being the first out, had a larger market share.

Table 1: Number of teachers who have used different subject textbooks by different publishers

Subject	No. of Teachers (Total:22)
English	5
Integrated Science	5
Geography	3
EPA	3
Maths	3
History	3

Publisher	No. of Teachers (Total:22)
Contracted publisher's Program	19
"Second Program"	3

The questionnaire was designed to find answers to the following questions:

- Was the Bridge Program's three-month time-scale realistic?
- Were the Bridge Program syllabuses properly integrated with the rest of the Secondary One syllabuses?
- Was the language used easy for students?
- To what extent have the texts benefited students' use of English?

The in-depth interviews were conducted to further elicit teachers' reaction to the Bridge Program, in particular, to what they regard as the most serious obstacles to implementation. We selected from the questionnaire respondents five teachers for the interview -- three have abandoned the contracted publishers' Bridge Program texts and two have been using the "Second Program".

The findings of the questionnaire survey and interviews, representing mostly the views of teachers who have used the contracted publisher's texts, are summarized in the following paragraphs.

Problems with integration with regular Secondary One syllabuses

The main problem, as pointed out by all respondents, is one of integration or continuity with regular Secondary One syllabuses. This finding is corroborated by Chan, Hoare and Johnson (1997) whose study of EMI implementation surveyed teachers and students in more than 50 schools. Teachers referred to the difficulty of going back to their regular syllabuses and textbooks after the three months. This problem is acute in all subjects, except in the case of English. With these subjects, a common complaint was that the degree of overlap between the Bridge Program texts and the regular texts has made the organization of teaching and learning extremely "messy". For example, the same topic may be covered at different depths in the two textbooks and teachers had to make judgments about what to leave out and how to merge the very different texts. Imagine the confusion this caused teachers and students who had been accustomed to very structured lessons dictated by textbooks, especially the students who at the same time were trying to adjust to English medium learning and secondary schooling in general.

In the case of the English text in the "Second Program", the integration or continuity problem is not one of content but approach. Teachers reported that it was tough returning to the standard text after the more lively, unbuttoned approach of the Bridge Program. In the Bridge Program text, there is, for example, much more participatory oral work and much less orientation toward examination than in the regular text. After the three months, teachers felt as if the "honeymoon" was over when they had to go back to their regular text.

Problems with overloaded syllabuses

All teachers surveyed, except English teachers, revealed that not only was there insufficient time to finish the Education Department's three-month syllabuses crammed into the textbooks, there was also insufficient time left to cover the rest of the obligatory Secondary One syllabuses. Chan, Hoare and Johnson (1997) also noted this problem in their study of EMI and bridging in Secondary One. Many teachers also felt that three months was a quite insufficient time for children (at least those in Band II and below) to make the kind of progress in linguistic competence that was expected of them. To many practising teachers, syllabus overload is a familiar, recurring problem in curriculum planning in Hong Kong.

There were financial implications too. An extra set of textbooks is costly, even if it were not adopted for all subjects as it was designed to be. Why should teachers recommend two sets of textbooks when substantial parts of them would be left untouched?

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Problems with Bridge Program textbooks

The teachers we interviewed pointed out that one of the biggest obstacles to Bridge Program implementation was the lack of suitable materials or textbooks. It was apparent from the "Bridge Program Evaluation" section of the questionnaire that the contracted publishers' texts were not working.

In the questionnaire, teachers were asked to rate ten statements on a scale of 1 (Strongly agree) to 7 (Strongly disagree). They rated statements about teaching and learning using the Bridge Program texts, comparing the situation to previous years when these texts were not available.

Figure 1: Teachers' mean ratings of the effectiveness of the Bridge Program

	Strongly agree 1 <----------	----------> Strongly disagree 7
1. Pupils were more willing to ask questions in English	4.1	
2. Pupils were more willing to answer questions in English	3.9	
3. Pupils had a more active learning role	4.4	
4. Pupils enjoyed the learning more	4.1	
5. Pupils learned the subject better	4.3	
6. Pupils did better in tests/examinations	4.0	
7. The class atmosphere was more lively	4.4	
8. TTT (teacher talking time) was reduced	4.1	
9. The language of the texts was easier for my pupils	3.8	
10. The exercises in the texts were more challenging	5.1	

Figure 1 shows the mean ratings of the ten statements. Obviously these mean ratings were tabulated across subjects which obscured the differences among various subjects. However, the general pattern shows that the ratings were mostly neutral, indicating that the texts were perceived as not having a positive effect on learning in the English medium.

As shown in Figure 1, the most "positive" rating was a poor 3.8 and was given to statement 9 ('The language of the texts was easier for my pupils'). Some ratings were rather negative, in particular those given to statements (3, 5, 7 and 10) concerning active learning, classroom atmosphere and exercises in the texts.

It is obvious that factors other than the textbook used, such as the teacher's English proficiency, his/her approach and teaching style would have influenced the rating of these statements. However, the Bridge Program texts of the contracted publisher, designed to embody a certain methodology, seemed to have failed to benefit students' use of English or to kick start a curriculum reform as was expected of them.

Teachers also commented on various aspects of the textbooks. Some content teachers were of the opinion that there was too much concentration on language and therefore insufficient focus on content. In certain subjects, such as History, the content material simply did not deliver the integration of concepts that is central to the subject. ('The Education Department's syllabus guidelines are partly to blame.') Other comments concern students' boredom (presumably unInspired by the texts), vocabulary difficulty, lack of examples for class and homework activities and various kinds of errors in the texts.

Problems with insufficient support from the Education Department

Another implementation obstacle was insufficient support from the Education Department in terms of practical training and pedagogic advice. Those teachers interviewed, as well as those in Keung and Law's (1995) study, expressed a strong desire for practical support such as sample resource materials outlining how bridging can be done. Teachers pointed out that the Education Department's usual one-off seminar and the Bridge Program booklet were only useful for a conceptual understanding of bridging and immersion teaching. Classroom-based training sessions which deal with the day-to-day issues and problems of teaching in the medium of English would be more welcome.

Chan, Hoare and Johnson (1997), in his study of EMI in Secondary One, found that only 5% of the 60 schools surveyed have teachers who have attended the 16-week EMI course offered by the Hong Kong Institute of Education. He also found that only 20% of the schools have teachers who have used the British Council's video-based teacher training package specifically produced for bridging. This suggests that the Education Department has yet to give its fullest support to schools and teachers for effective implementation of the Bridge Program.

Teachers were of the opinion that support should also include monitoring, both of the use of the Bridge Program and of teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards it. A strong monitoring regime would encourage schools to ensure that teachers were properly trained and that evaluation criteria were established. With these in place, teachers would be more committed to success in the use of the Bridge Program.

Backing from principals and subject panels was also seen as essential to successful Bridge Program implementation. Although Chan, Hoare and Johnson (1997) maintains that content teachers recognized their responsibility for the development of their students' English language proficiency, it was clear from our questionnaire and interviews that this may not be the case. It seems that content teachers' attitudes towards the role of language in the learning process have not been adequately addressed. Some felt that language was not their business and would obviously prefer to cover a lot of content rather than pay attention to English language use. This suggests that the Education Department still has a lot of work to do in creating awareness, among content teachers, of the importance of building a solid language foundation in Secondary One for effective subject learning.

The Future

It has not been the Education Department's policy to work closely with publishers, but this policy will have to be reviewed in the case of future innovatory initiatives which the Department wishes to promote, if the Department is serious about seeing the pedagogical precepts it favours accurately reflected in the texts that publishers produce.

Refining the Bridge Program in the light of comments and criticisms from teachers who have used the materials

Many teachers complained that the language of the Bridge Program texts was too difficult; others that it was too easy. The obvious reason for this spread of views is that there is a wide spread of average language aptitude among the various secondary schools using the Bridge Program (ranging from the top of Band I to Band III — we have even heard of its use in Band V schools). At present, some schools (and individuals) seem to be using the Bridge Program as a means to bringing students up to the MIGA (Medium of Instruction Grouping Assessment) standard, rather than using it with children who have already reached that standard.

Such a laisser-faire attitude no longer prevails; firm measures have been taken to ensure that only the 30% most linguistically capable will be eligible to study in English. However, there may be many other students with a wide spread of linguistic ability who wish to use these texts to upgrade their standard of English. Hence, some re-writing would be desirable to ensure that the texts can be used more flexibly. Some students, for example, require much firmer guidance on doing class activities and homework exercises.

Some teachers found that the syllabuses for some Bridge Program subjects were poorly conceived. Certain syllabuses (e.g., History) lacked coherence, and little attention seemed to have been paid to the place of this content in the overall Secondary One History syllabus. As we indicated earlier, this may entail the Education Department going back to the drafting board.

Further reinforcement of the Bridge Program philosophy would be achieved if writers of the *regular* post-Secondary One texts aspire to the Bridge Program goal of introducing uniform and tightly controlled English across the curriculum and paid a lot more attention to communication, to the use of language for learning content material.

Giving implementation a better chance

Teachers complained that the Bridge Program seemed to be a stand-alone project, that little attempt had been made to properly integrate it into the mainstream Secondary syllabus, and that insufficient consideration had been given to the distribution of work over the year. One obvious means of better integrating Bridge Program texts into the Secondary syllabus would be to let the Bridge Program texts take over the *whole* of the Secondary One syllabus.

An alternative would be to reduce the amount of content learning required of children in Secondary One. Easing of content load would have two benefits. The first is that foundational content at the beginning of secondary schooling stands a better chance of being learned well if properly paced. At present, many children are "getting off to a bad start" and will struggle thereafter. The second is that vital time would be freed up for active language learning. If a situation arose in which the CMI schools were able to pack considerably more content into Secondary One than EMI schools, this would clearly be unacceptable to teachers and parents. The remedy seems to be to advocate a content reduction generally in Secondary One, irrespective of language of instruction. Given that, in the near future, a sizable proportion of educated Hong Kong children will be expected to be trilingual, there does seem to be a good case for laying strong linguistic foundations at the outset. Fortified with good language abilities at the end of Secondary One, it is reasonable to assume that progress in content learning in Secondary Two and subsequently will be rapid, so that the Secondary One "deficit" can soon be repaired.

Apart from the practical considerations outlined above, it is necessary to create a positive attitude towards the Bridge Program philosophy. Subject teachers need to be persuaded of the "language across the curriculum" approach -- language underlies all subject learning, though perhaps to a lesser extent, it might be argued, in subjects such as maths and engineering. Without a good language foundation, content learning is bound to suffer. This message has not yet got across. At present, the teacher training program for the Bridge Program is woefully inadequate. While the Education Department has put on seminars giving information about the Bridge Program, what is needed are workshops which show teachers how to make their subject teaching rich in language learning.

The future of English in the Hong Kong SAR and the role of the Bridge Program

Will English remain an important foreign language in Hong Kong, or will it decline in its use and significance? Current indications are that the SAR and Beijing is well aware of the importance of English for the economic well-being of an international trading centre and is keen that children here be taught it. Students themselves recognize that their job prospects are very much improved by their possession of good English skills (Boyle, 1996; Littlewood and Liu, 1996). There has been talk of imposing financial penalties on those entering university who have not attained sufficiently adequate standards in language (Chinese and English). This rather drastic proposal seems to have rejuvenated what could be called the "Declining Language Standards" debate.

Should the SAR government choose to promote a strong version of bilingualism or multilingualism in schools and create the societal conditions necessary for its success (see for example, Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia, 1995), then the Bridge Program may yet come into its own. We believe the philosophy of the Bridge Program is well-founded and that implementation obstacles can be removed. There is a demand from teachers who are involved in EMI for bridging materials for their students. Both our own survey and that of Chan, Hoare and Johnson (1997) have revealed this. As mentioned earlier, some teachers have attempted to design their own "Bridge" material, but it is not easy to produce materials which use suitably controlled language and provide cognitively challenging subject learning while giving students ample opportunities for interactive language learning. However, the production of texts is just one part of the Bridge Program; successful implementation requires much more. As documented here and elsewhere (see for example, Chan, Hoare and Johnson,1997), many of the prerequisites for the successful implementation of EMI and the Bridge Program are not yet in place.

Even if the schools return or are encouraged to return to a partial immersion program (using English for certain subjects, Chinese for others), which might stand a better chance of success than total immersion, there will still be the need to bring students up to that threshold which permits them to pursue their studies profitably, even though the threshold level can vary depending on the demands of the curriculum. And that is precisely the object of the Bridge Program -- to help children make that leap, after the end of their primary schooling, to a good standard of English, so that they can learn effectively.

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The Impact of Disseminated School-Based Curriculum Materials On Hong Kong Schools

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Curriculum policy in Hong Kong is moving towards school-based curriculum development. This is reflected by the introduction of the School-based Curriculum Project Scheme by the Education Department in 1988. The aim of the Scheme is to encourage teachers to produce curriculum projects which meet the learning needs of pupils and schools. However, the Education Department selected and reproduced some of the school-based curriculum project materials for dissemination to all Hong Kong schools. This paper is a report of the study which analyses the collection and use of the disseminated projects by schools and the perceptions of the school teachers towards these projects.

校本課程教材的散佈對香港學校的影響

[illegible]

Introduction

School-based curriculum development (SBCD) was regarded as an alternative strategy to centrally determined curriculum decision making. Skilbeck (1984) identifies the main features of SBCD and defines it as:

> *the planning, design, implementation and evaluation of a programme of students' learning by the educational institution of which those students are members. (P.2)*

The rationale for the introduction of SBCD in various education systems was based on: a general dissatisfaction with the results achieved by centre-periphery approach to curriculum development; a concern for developing teachers' professionalism; a belief that school is a suitable place for curriculum development; and a social demand for democratisation (Skilbeck, 1984; Cohen, 1985; Sabar, 1985; 1991; Marsh et al, 1990; Marsh, 1997).

In Hong Kong, the Education Department introduced SBCD in the form of the School-based Curriculum Project Scheme (SBCPS) in 1988. The rationale for the Scheme were: to meet pupils' varied learning needs and interests; to motivate teachers to take part in curriculum development; to encourage schools to make appropriate adaptation to the central curriculum; and to provide a device for teachers to meet the changing needs of society (CDC, 1988a,b). School teachers were encouraged to join the Scheme and to produce school-based curriculum (SBC) projects with financial support from the Education Department. Details about the implementation of the SBCPS at the school level are provided by Lo (1995).

During the school year, the Education Department used a number of ways to disseminate the SBCPS materials. These included annual exhibitions of the completed projects, a display of the projects in the related centres such as the special education centre, a delivery of directories of projects, and a distribution of the selected projects. As it is difficult to examine the effect of all these aspects of dissemination on Hong Kong schools, the focus of this paper is on the projects that were selected and reproduced for wider distribution at the secondary level.

It is argued that the dissemination of the projects to other schools appeared to be in contrast with the goals of the Scheme which emphasised the importance of catering for the needs of pupils in specific schools. In addition, there was an implicit conflict between the major role perceived by the

secondary school teachers and the intention behind the SBC projects. Teachers believed their major responsibility was to cover the subject syllabus and to prepare pupils for examinations within a limited time scale. The disseminated projects were seen as adding more content to an already tight syllabus. If the activity approach was used, more time was needed to cover a particular topic. Consequently, many teachers were not keen on using the projects. However, some of the teachers chose to use some of the materials in their classes, extra-curricular activities, and some school activities such as class periods and morning assembly.

The paper, which aims to understand the impact of the disseminated projects on Hong Kong schools, consists of three sections. The first section describes the research methods. The second section analyses the major findings collected. The last section discusses the perception of the secondary school teachers towards the projects.

Research Methods

In order to determine the features of the disseminated SBC projects and the level of use of these projects by school teachers, the projects which were selected by the Education Department for duplication and dissemination to secondary schools were collected from the relevant sections in the Education Department and the University library. These projects focussed on the subjects of Biology, Geography, Civic Education, English and Art & Design. Moreover, 153 school panels of the above subjects were contacted. These school panels were randomly selected from the secondary school lists prepared by Ho (1991; 1992a; 1992b). Altogether 210 of these subject teachers were telephone-interviewed. The reason for using telephone interview was that when the target interviewees were initially contacted by telephone, they began to provide information about their use of the project materials. So a telephone interview was adopted. Most of the interviewees were subject panel heads; others were subject teachers and deputy principals. They were all not directly involved in the SBCPS. Some of them had already collected the school-based curriculum projects disseminated by the Education Department.

A set of open questions was designed for the interviews. They served as a guide during the interview process. The major items for the interviews were concerned with: awareness of the disseminated SBC projects; impression of the project materials; reasons for not using the project materials; comments on the projects in use; and major concerns. For those teachers who had not used the disseminated projects at the time of initial interviews but intended to use them later, supplementary interviews were undertaken after they had used the projects.

Results

In the following section the results of this study are analysed with respect to the features of the projects selected for wider distribution at the secondary level; the collection and the actual use of the projects in secondary schools; and the views of the school teachers towards the disseminated project materials.

1. The Features of the Disseminated Projects

Five projects produced in the first year of the Scheme (i.e. 1988-89) were selected by the Education Department for distribution to all secondary schools. The selection was based on (1) the budget for the year, (2) the feasibility of using the projects in other schools, (3) the copyright of the projects, and (4) the school levels the projects were designed for. The selected projects were 'Developing Progressive Listening & Speaking Activities for Secondary One Remedial Classes' (an English project), 'Environmental Pollution & Conservation in Hong Kong' (a Geography project), 'Rights & Responsibilities - Class, School, Society' (a Civic Education project), 'Gardening Project' (a Biology project) , and 'Electronic Images - Computer Graphics' (an Art & Design project).

The projects were all subject-based - meaning that they were designed to cover topics in the existing subject syllabuses of English, Geography, Civic Education, Biology, or Art and Design. The main focus of the projects was on the junior secondary level, i.e. S1-S3. The general aims of the projects were to develop the pupils' knowledge/concepts, skills and attitudes in relation to the subject areas. The teaching materials

comprised the teacher's guides and the required teaching aids. They focussed on the content of the existing syllabuses and in some cases promoted an alternate instructional strategy. The main pedagogical strategy was to encourage the use of an activity approach with a provision of task-based experiences for pupils in learning. Worksheets which provided extension exercises or follow-up activities were designed to consolidate what had been learnt, and it was suggested that these be used for assessment purposes.

2. The Collection and the Use of the Projects in the Secondary Schools

The data concerning the teachers' response to the disseminated project materials is summarised in Table 1 and Table 2.

From the tables, the following observations are relevant:

(a) In the initial interviews

- Of the 153 subject panels interviewed in the secondary schools, only 44 of them had collected the projects from the Education Department. Civic Education was the most popular subject, while Art & Design was the least popular one.
- Only 8 subject panels claimed that teachers in their schools had used the materials in the year 1991-92. These panels were the teachers of Geography and Civic Education.
- 17 subject panels expressed their intention to use the project materials during the next academic year. The majority of these were involved in teaching Civic Education. No Art & Design panels were willing to consider using the project materials.

Table 1: Number of subject panels that collected and used the projects in the initial interview

Subject	*Subject Panels Interviewed*	*Subject Panels who collected the projects*	*Subject Panels who used the projects*	*Subject Panels who considered using the projects*
English	31	8	0	5
Geography	29	9	4	4
Civic Education	30	15	4	7
Biology	30	8	0	1
Art & Design	33	4	0	0
Total	153	44	8	17

Table 2: Number of subject panels that used/did not use the projects in the supplementary interview

Subject	*Subject Panels Interviewed*	*Subject Panels who have used the projects*	*Subject Panels who are considering using the projects next year*	*Subject Panels who have decided not to use the projects in the future*
English	5	0	2	2
Geography	4	1	1	1
Civic Education	7	1	2	0
Biology	1	1	1	0
Art & Design	0	0	0	0
Total	17	3	6	3

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(b) In the supplementary interviews

Of these 17 subject panels, only 3 used the project materials; 6 were considering using the project materials for reference in the next academic year; and 3 had decided not to use, or recommend their panel members to use, the project materials in the future.

3. *The Project Materials: Views of the Secondary School Teachers*

The perceptions of the projects by the secondary school teachers were analysed in terms of their impression of the project materials, the reasons for their unwillingness to use the project materials, the characteristics of those projects that were in use, and their major concerns.

3.1 Impression of the project materials

Teachers from 14 subject panels admitted that they had not looked at the projects because they were too busy with their normal teaching duties and did not have the time to go over the materials. Teachers from 19 subject panels had managed to have a quick look at the projects. Five of these perceived that the projects were well-organised teaching materials. They also had the following views: the contents were constructive in nature; there were suggestions for class activities; the teaching approach was 'modern'; there was a provision of clear guidelines for the teachers. Additionally, two other subject panel teachers considered that the project materials could be best used as supplementary materials for existing topics in the subject syllabuses.

Teachers from five other subject panels said that the project materials were not impressive enough and they could not give any further comments on the materials. However, one teacher pointed out that the topics included in the Civic Education project overlapped between the three class levels. As he explained:

> *The Civic Education project is only suitable for teaching within one year at the three class levels. It cannot be used for teaching three consecutive years of the same class.*

Another teacher expressed the view that the activities designed in the Geography project were not practical in school. She commented,

> *The activities for the Geography project are not practical. Take an example, there is an excursion suggested in the project.....How can a teacher take more than forty pupils out of school for an excursion?.....Take another example, there is an activity for water pollution at the junior level, but the pupils at that level don't have any past experience in this area .....They will find the activity difficult.*

Despite such criticisms, it is clear that most of the teachers who looked at the projects had a positive impression of the teaching materials.

3.2 Reasons for not using the disseminated project materials

Despite a generally favourable impression of the materials, teachers from 33 subject panels acknowledged that they and their colleagues in the same subject panels had never used the project materials. This was mainly because of the pressure of central syllabuses and examinations. More than half of them had no intention of using the project materials in the future. Their reasons are summarised in the order of importance shown in Table 3 and the frequency of use of those reasons is shown in Table 4. They are illustrated below:

(A) The dissonance of the projects with the subject syllabuses and examination requirements

This was by far the most important reason given by the teachers. The materials provided with the projects were perceived as not compatible with the contents of the school syllabuses. The teachers believed that this would create difficulties in using the project materials with their pupils. It was the normal practice of the secondary school teachers to follow the rationale and expectations of the central syllabuses. The project materials which contained a great deal of local teaching materials were not included in the junior subject syllabuses. As a teacher said,

> *I must look at the rationale of the syllabus from the ED to see what they expect the pupils to learn in my subject (Geography) .....As the project topic doesn't appear on the syllabus, I will not teach it because it is not practical.....*

Table 3: A Summary of the Reasons for not using the projects

	No. of Subject Panels					
	English	Geog.	Civic Ed.	Biology	Art	Total
Dissonance of Project with the syllabuses and exam requirements	7	6	7	8	0	28
Locations of projects	1	1	4	1	0	7
Availability of teaching materials from other sources	2	0	4	0	0	6
Demand for special facilities, knowledge and skills	0	0	0	2	4	6
Other reasons	1	0	2	1	0	4

Table 4: The Frequency of the Reasons used

	Sole	Main	Subsidiary
Dissonance of Project with the syllabuses and exam requirements	23	4	1
Locations of projects	6	1	1
Availability of teaching materials from other sources	4	0	6
Demand for special facilities, knowledge and skills	5	0	1
Other reasons			
(1) Existing class levels /subjects	1	0	1
(2) Pupils' learning levels	1	0	0
(3) Cross disciplinary nature of the projects	0	0	1

Note: Sole = the only reasons provided by the teachers
Main = the first reasons given by the teachers
Subsidiary = the subsequent reasons given by the teachers

Therefore, it was not easy to fit what was perceived as "irrelevant content" or "extra material" into the existing well-organised and demanding teaching schedule. The same teacher explained:

> *The SBC project is about pollution and conservation in Hong Kong.....There is no time available in S1 because they only have 2 periods in 1 cycle .....For S2, the syllabus focuses on teaching the landscape in the southern continents. We don't want to break up the continuity of the syllabus by inserting irrelevant materials.....For S3, two-thirds of the time is used to teach North America and Europe, the rest is for map reading. Therefore, there is no time to introduce any new topics.*

The time for completing the normal school syllabus was already very tight; so it was impossible to find extra time for the projects. A teacher illustrated:

> *We have 9 periods for English.....7 for grammar, 2 for extensive reading.....There is no extra time to teach integrated skills which are important in language learning.....How can we have time to follow the English project?*

As some of the teachers perceived that their major responsibility was to prepare their pupils for examinations, they felt guilty if they spent time on anything which was not in the examination syllabus. These teachers opined:

> *If we use the time to completing the Biology project, then the time for the exam syllabus will be automatically reduced. This will affect the exam results of the pupils.*
>
> *The education system in Hong Kong is exam-oriented. All the teaching materials are significantly affected by the syllabus. Those which are irrelevant will have no teaching function.*
>
> *'Soil' is not included in the Biology syllabus. It is an extra topic which is not useful for the exam. The pupils will be concerned because what they learn from this topic will not be included in the exam.*

Another teacher, who had planned to use the project but later gave it up because of the pressure of the examination, explained:

> *I once thought of using the Civic Education project materials with the pupils in the EPA lessons..... But the pupils need textbooks to revise for the exam..... If they do not have the textbook, they will find revision very difficult and will lose confidence.....*

Additionally, the teaching methods and the language used in class must be geared to the examination requirements. However, those which were encouraged in the projects could not meet this demand. Two teachers elaborated as follows:

> *The teaching methods suggested in the Geography project are not of direct teaching.....Using one period for a game in order to realise an intended concept..... We can't cover too few topies and then ask pupils to sit for an examination which lasts for one hour.*

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The language used in the games is Chinese (Cantonese). Our pupils can't use the knowledge they acquire in Chinese from the games to answer the exam questions which are in English. They can't express themselves.

(B) The availability of the projects in the schools

Some teachers identified that the ease of access to the project materials in their schools affected the willingness of their colleagues to use them. The following comment was illustrative:

The Civic Education project has been put in the library. It is not on hand for the teachers.....I don't think my colleagues have used it for their classes.

A teacher also had complaints about the location of the project as follows:

It (the Civic Education project) is stored up in the cupboard in the General Office. No one knows where it is or has seen it.....It has not been circulated among the teachers.....

A deputy principal underlined the problem then he explained:

I went to find the Civic Education project after your phone call..... It used to be in the library ..... But I couldn't locate it this time.....Our library moved to a new room recently.

(C) The availability of other teaching materials

Apart from the SBC project materials, there were other materials available for use in school. The teachers could choose from these materials for reference or teaching purposes. The following comment was similar to that made by a number of teachers:

We already have our own designed teaching programmes. We can't put the topic (the Civic Education project) into our programme in the middle of the term and interrupt the whole schedule.

It was also believed that the required teaching materials were provided in the relevant textbooks. A teacher elaborated,

In our subject panel meeting, all our colleagues felt that the contents in the textbook was already enough. So we have no intention to use other teaching materials including the Civic Education project collected from the ED.

From time to time, the schools would receive various learning materials in the form of teaching kits. A teacher explained,

We have a lot of teaching kits on Civic Education. Our teachers can choose the best out of them for their use.

There were also teaching materials available from commercial sources. These materials were viewed as well-designed and more interesting and attractive than the SBC projects. A teacher spoke frankly,

The self-made English materials were not good enough..... Their presentation is not too attractive..... We prefer commercial materials because they are more interesting.

(D) The need for special facilities, knowledge and skills

To use some of the SBC projects, the schools needed to provide special facilities. For example, the Biology project required the school to provide a field for cultivation purposes. The teachers teaching in the urban area said that they did not have the required field in their schools. Even a teacher in the New Territories (Tai Po) claimed that they did not have the necessary facilities. He said,

We don't have such a field. Even if we have a field, we don't have a water source. We can't ask our kids to carry water from somewhere. If we ask the minor staff to do this, they will not be happy. Even if the field and water are all available, who will look after it during the long holidays?

The Art & Design project required the provision of special computers. A teacher commented,

The computer facility is the big problem. We have a computer system in our school, but not the type required by the project..... You know, the old Apple type.....

Another problem is that the teachers have to possess the relevant knowledge and skills to guide their pupils in using these two projects. Two teachers admitted that they did not have such knowledge or skills:

I don't know about computers.....How can I use the Art & Design project for teaching?

To start from seeding.....It is very difficult. I personally have experience in growing tomatoes from seeding.....I found it very difficult..... I will not use this Biology project with my pupils.

(E) Other miscellaneous reasons

Other reasons for not using the projects were associated with the existing class levels and subjects in the schools, the learning level of the pupils, and the cross-disciplinary nature of the projects.

In two of the schools, there were no relevant subjects on the timetable or class level suitable for using the projects. A teacher explained:

We don't formally teach Civic Education. We don't have a Civic Education Committee. We don't have any period of that sort on our timetable. In our morning assembly, the priest is responsible for giving religious talks to the pupils. So we don't need to use the project.

One of the projects was perceived by the teachers as not suitable for the learning level of their pupils. A teacher commented:

The English project is designed for S.1 remedial classes.....The problem is .....the English standard of our pupils is much lower than the level intended in the project. In our school, out of 200 pupils at S.1, 60% can't recognise clearly the twenty-six letters in the alphabet.

Another teacher also analysed the problem created by the cross-disciplinary nature of the project. As he said,

Soil in this Biology project is also a topic included in the Geography syllabus.....We really don't know which subject teacher should teach it.

3.3 The projects in use

It was found that the Geography project, the Civic Education project and the Biology project had been used by teachers from eleven relevant subject panels. The views of the teachers who used these projects were analysed in terms of: the extent of use of the projects, the perceived effects of the projects, and the problems and difficulties encountered.

3.3.1 The use of the projects

Generally the pattern which emerged was that the projects were not used in the way they were designed to be used. Teachers tended to select from the projects those bits that they felt useful and which could be incorporated into their own teaching approach or used in extra-curricular activities. A teacher succinctly explained:

It is impossible to use the whole Geography project. We could only choose the most useful part.

In the Civic Education project, which was the most 'popular' project, the most useful parts as perceived by the teachers were the teaching aids, the suggested activities and the information provided. Three teachers explained:

We made use of the wall-charts to stimulate the thinking of the pupils in their design of the constitutions for their class associations.

We asked the pupils to use role play for organising a class association. As they were S.1 pupils and had not had such an experience before, they were very excited.

We chose some of the project contents..... We had to give a talk in the morning assembly and the materials provided in the books are not up-to-date. Those in the project were more up-to-date, so we use them.....

Additionally, the teachers also provided the projects for their pupils as reference materials. As two teachers explained:

Our pupils borrowed the project for reference materials for doing their bulletin board.

The pupils used the project materials to organise their talks during the class periods.

In the Geography project, the suggested games and the teaching aids were regarded as especially useful for organising extra-curricular activities in the schools. Two teachers explained:

We once used the video-tapes in an after-school activity organised by the Geography Society .....

That day was the game day for our Geography Society .....We used the games provided in the project, together with the materials from other teaching kits collected from the ED.....Through the games, the pupils gained an appreciation of the importance of environmental protection.....

Another teacher used the worksheets for the follow-up activity in class teaching. As she said,

I used the worksheet as the follow-up activity on the teaching topic.....It did save me time in preparation.

The teachers had used the Biology project for helping the pupils to do their project assignment. A teacher explained:

After the Mid-term exam in January, the AS (Advanced Supplementary Level) pupils have to do projects on their own. The SBC project has already been introduced to them as one of their reference materials. Whether they use the project will depend on individual pupils' interest.

3.3.2 Perceived effects

The suggested activities in the projects were seen to be effective for arousing pupils' interest in learning. A teacher who used the Civic Education project made the following remarks:

The pupils, especially those in S.1, were interested in the activities.....They had not had such activities when they were in their primary schools.

A teacher who used part of the Geography project as extra-curricular activities said,

We tried to encourage the pupils at the upper class levels to lead those in the lower in the school.....The pupils tended to pay full attention in those games and activities which suited their levels.

The project materials also helped the pupils to develop their skills in choosing relevant materials. A Biology teacher commented:

Using the materials designed by others depended very much on the level of suitability..... However, it was beneficial to train the pupils to take an active role in choosing the materials they wanted for their own projects.

Moreover, the availability of the project materials meant the teachers saved time in preparing lessons. As an EPA teacher said,

I used the wall-charts and worksheets to teach a similar topic in my subject. This saved me a lot of preparation time.

3.4 Problems and concerns

The teachers who used the project materials encountered few problems. Those mentioned were mainly related to the quality of teaching aids and the organisation of the activities. One teacher, for example, was not satisfied with the videotape provided in the Geography project.

The voice on the videotape was too low and not lively enough. It could not hold the attention of the pupils.

Similarly, two teachers had a similar complaint on the provision of the game cards in the project.

There is only one set of game cards provided in the project. It is difficult to play the game with a large group of pupils .....The cards were too small for them all to see at the same time.

In organising an activity for the pupils, one teacher faced discipline problems. He illustrated his situation as follows:

They (the pupils) were very noisy. I couldn't stop them. Fortunately, it was an extra-curricular activity after school.....If it (the Geography project) was used in class, I am sure we couldn't find a place or room suitable for the activity.

Two teachers found that the Civic Education and Geography projects were unsuitable for the levels they were teaching. As a result, it was thought that the pupils did not have a good understanding of the concepts intended.

Although it contains educational function, the content of the Civic Education project is too theoretical and bears no resemblance to practice.....I think, in learning the concepts intended in the project, the pupils need time to think. I personally found that the pupils could not really use election in their class association. They just forced people to take up the posts.

I used the game cards for the S.1 pupils.....The pupils appeared to have difficulty in understanding the contents of the cards and were not too interested in the game.

Some of the project contents were also criticised as not being able to encouraging pupils to develop their cognitive skills and attitudes. As a teacher said,

In the Geography project, the questions asked in the game cards were too factual..... Take an example, 'How much rubbish was thrown out by the people in Hong Kong?'.....This kind of questions could not stimulate the thoughts of the pupils and foster their values development.

As most of the project materials were used in the extra-curricular activities, a Geography teacher had the following comment.

.....For extra-curricular activities, the games were not interesting enough.....

The teachers who collected the SBC projects from the Education Department had common concerns about the

SBCPS materials. Firstly, as the SBC projects were designed by individual schools according to their own needs, it was thought to be inappropriate to duplicate these projects and send them to other schools which might not have the same situation. The following comment provided by a teacher is illustrative:

> *The project which we received recently has no relevance to our school situation.....*

He went on to suggest:

> *If the projects have to be distributed, they should be sent to those schools within the same districts since they may have the common characteristics and needs.*

Secondly, as secondary school teaching in Hong Kong is practically dominated by the central syllabuses and the project materials were perceived as "irrelevant content" or "extra-materials", the teachers could not understand the real intention of the Education Department in the dissemination of the SBCPS materials. A teacher said,

> *What does the ED actually want us to do? To teach more of the central syllabus, or to teach more of the SBC projects?*

Thirdly, the success of teaching SBC projects must depend on the provision of the required resources and the support of the principal and colleagues. A teacher commented,

> *To use SBC projects, it is necessary for the teachers to have enough time to write teaching notes for the pupils, and the permission from the principal not to use the textbooks and to cut part of the syllabus.*

However it was often found that there was a shortage of time and support services in school, and these became major constraints to the use of the SBCPS materials.

Finally, it was agreed that school teachers should not be asked to design SBC projects because they already had a heavy workload. A teacher explained:

> *The new teachers not only have to teach but also to prepare lessons, assess their pupils and spend a certain amount of time on pastoral care. The experienced ones usually have administrative work in addition to the work mentioned above. As a result, they do not have any extra time for SBC projects.*

Discussion and Implications

In this paper, it has been demonstrated that the school teachers were not enthusiastic about collecting the SBC projects disseminated by the Education Department. Of those who had collected the projects, most were unwilling to use the materials in their classrooms. The major reason for this derived from the teachers' concern to cover the syllabuses and to prepare the pupils for examinations. Other reasons included: the location of the project materials in school, the availability of other teaching materials, and the demand for special facilities (i.e. a cultivation field, special computer model), knowledge and skills (i.e. computer knowledge, technique in growing plants). Whilst the overall level of impact of the disseminated projects was low, some elements were used by a small number of teachers. These included some parts of the teaching aids and some of the suggested activities. The teaching aids were used with the existing teaching approach in covering the topics in the syllabuses. The suggested activities were primarily used to organise extra-curricular activities in the schools.

These findings are congruent with those identified by Morris (1985) and Fullan (1991). Hong Kong stresses the selective function of schooling which places a premium on the importance of examinations. Teachers were influenced by this social climate and perceived their role and responsibility as to cover the syllabuses within the limited time scale so that their pupils could pass the examinations with satisfactory results. The disseminated projects were perceived by the teachers as requiring more time to cover the topics in the syllabuses with a provision of supplementary teaching materials or an encouragement of the use of the activity approach. This was therefore in marked contrast to the teachers' expectation of their role since the inclusion of the projects in the syllabuses is seen to be too time-consuming and interrupting their normal teaching schedule.

Additionally, the projects were also perceived by some of the teachers as impractical and crude in quality. They were seen as incompatible with the actual school situations in which the required facilities were not available for the use of the projects. Moreover, in some cases, the teachers did not possess the required knowledge and skills to guide their pupils in using the equipment such as computers. Teachers believed that they

could easily obtain similar teaching materials which were of better quality and more appropriate from other sources.

The results of this study have some implications for the use of SBC projects by teachers in schools. Firstly, as Hong Kong teachers are under pressure of preparing students for examinations, consideration could be made to have a gradual change of the examination contents especially those of the internal examinations so that both teachers and pupils would regard the project materials as relevant to the requirements of the examinations. Secondly, in attempting to promote the use of SBC projects, the roles of principals and subject panel head are very important. They should take up the responsibility of encouraging and supporting teachers to adapt the content of subject syllabuses and textbooks with reference to the project materials. Special time could also be arranged on the timetable to allow the use of SBC projects in class. Thirdly, it is important for teachers to have a clear understanding of the nature and purpose of individual projects as well as to possess the relevant skills and knowledge in using the project materials. A provision of in-service courses is therefore vital if the SBC projects are to be used successfully in schools.

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中國浙江省小學生寫作中使用字詞特點

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本研究採用全語文寫作教學策略，使學生在自由的環境下表現寫作水平。本研究共收集了276名一至六年級的小學生作文樣本828篇，分析後得出小學各年級學生寫作中所用漢字的總字數、字種數、字種率、各年級所用總詞數、詞種數、詞種率及其年級的發展特點。比較內地學生的常用字與臺灣有關研究的異同，得出學生寫作中所超用字、漏用字的發展特點，語文成績與作文成績與作文字詞量有關，各年級錯別字的現象的發展特點。研究發現現行教材的識字對學生的寫作存在一要學的沒用、要用的沒學」的問題。研究結果可以作為日後編寫教材及寫作教學改革的參考。

The Characteristic of the Use of Chinese Characters and Words in Writing by Primary School Pupils in Zhejiang of China

276 research subjects from Primary 1 to Primary 6 were invited to write in Chinese. 828 written samples were collected. Whole language approach was used in teaching writing. Students can write without too much guidance and can express their own idea freely. Researchers tried to find out the total number of Chinese characters and words, the number of types of characters and words, and the type-token ratio of words of the samples in different grade levels. The developmental characteristics were also investigated. The research findings were compared with similar studies in China and Taiwan district. It is found that there was correlation between the language performance, writing performance and the number of vocabulary used by the research subjects. Researchers also examined the developmental characteristics of errors of vocabulary. Research results indicated that the present teaching materials for vocabulary learning are not effective. Pupils have learnt vocabulary, which they do not have experienced. On the hand, they do not have the vocabulary to express themselves. There is a need to bridge the gap. The findings are useful for curriculum development and teaching.

學生寫作是運用語言文字以書面表現思維，表達思想感情的過程，也是語言、認知、道德和情感發展的綜合體現（Wilkinson, 1980；1986）。從總體上看，小學生的寫作能力可從「語言（形式，文字）和「內容（思維，思想）兩方面分析（章熊等，1992）。祝新華（1993）指出小學生寫作中的語言表達處於較低的水平，語句簡單，詞彙僅能「達意」。面對這種基本的書面表達所用字詞特點的研究，可以揭示小學生寫作能力的發展特點。對小學生在寫作中能用哪些字詞，教材中所學的哪些字詞是小學生在寫作中能使用的，哪些是不能的，小學生寫作中是否會使用在課外學到的字詞等問題深入研究，有助於改進語文教學。

1. 研究文獻

1.1 兒童常用漢字的研究

早在清朝末年，為了方便傳教士學習漢語，外國到華人士採用統計分析的方法選定中文常用字。1920年陳鶴琴，收集兒童讀物、報刊、雜誌、兒童作品、古今小說、雜誌等資料，編成「語體文應用字彙」。1930年北洋官將中外人士已有的研究成果進行綜合分析編成基本字彙，總字數為5262字。杜佐周、蔣成堃，(1931)編成《兒童與成人常用字彙》，臺灣教育部(1935)編成《小學初級分級暫用字彙》，王文新(1931)編成《小學分級字彙》，國立編譯館(1963-1967)完成《國民學校常用字彙》，張春興、邱維城 (1973)的《國小中高年級小學生作文常用字彙表》及柯華葳、邱皓政 (1993)的《國民小學常用字及生字難度研究－低年級》。另外，相關的研

究還有臺灣劉英茂等的《常用中文詞之出現次數字量表》(1975)，政治大學教育系的《兒童常用詞量研究量表》(1982)以及柯華葳、邱皓政等的《國民小學常用字及生字難度研究》(1993)。

盧炳基等(1986)開展初中學生詞匯研究，選取中國語文、中國歷史、數學、科學、社會等教科書及報刊雜誌、散文及小說等課外讀物785 907字，獲得初中課本詞語、課外讀物詞語、常用五千詞的字詞組合等結果。

在內地對於簡體字常用字也進行了研究，運用大量的語料開展這方面的統計(見表1)，在這基礎上，進行了學生常用字的研究。

張渝國(1983)把出版物分為哲學社會科學、科學技術、文學藝術、新聞四大類，求出各類文章在社會上占有的比率，據此按照一定的公式對《漢字頻度表》中的字種進行計算，得《社會用字概率表》。最後以此表前4000字為基礎進行篩選，最後得到《小學語文用字表》，包括字種3071字。初學識字，至少要達到1 500字左右，識3 000字種的覆蓋率為99.5%。

北京語言學院語言教學研究所(1985)採用人民教育出版社十年制中小學語文教材，取樣近400000詞量，通過漢語詞匯的統計與分析，獲得《按音序排列並注明年級分布的頻率詞表》、《按頻率排列的詞表》、《1000個高頻詞的漢字組詞能力分析表》等。

1.2 兒童作文使用字詞的特點

1.2.1 心理詞匯

心理詞匯(mental lexicon)是在大腦中儲存著並已掌握的詞匯，每一個詞猶如是詞典中的一個詞目。Aitchison(1987)研究心理詞匯包括這個詞的語音(音韻學的)，在句子中的角色(按照造句法，如句法特徵及其在句中與其它詞的關係)，意義(語義學的)。這個詞在心理詞匯中，可能是按照使用頻率高低排列的，頻率高的在前，因此檢索所需的時間較少，但也可能是根據語音排列的。小學生的心理詞分可為兩大類：既能讀懂、聽懂又能用於表達(說話、寫作)的為積極詞匯(active vocabulary)；只能讀懂、聽懂，但不能用於表達的稱為消極詞匯(passive vocabulary)。

1.2.2 作文的總字數

學生作文的篇幅隨年級的升高而增長，不限字數的作文篇幅明顯要長於根據教學大綱限定的字數。城市小學生的作文較鄉村小學生的作文長。一些屬於不同區域的小學畢業年級作文的平均長度300～400字(朱智賢、黃仁發，1990)，城市六年級學生平均長度為560字(祝新華，1993)。

1.2.3 作文中的超用字

小學生漢字學習中還有一種超前現象，就是在寫作中學生會用在高年級教材中出現的(教師未在課堂內教過)，通過自己課外學習識得漢字，據經驗推斷，超用字量占該年級掌握的字量比例，一二年級高達10～21%，三年級以後穩定在2.5-3.5%，但沒有進一步更為詳盡的研究結論(朱智賢、黃仁發等，1990)。

1.2.4 作文中的常用字

台灣張春興、邱維城(1973)調查2所小學4個年級200名學生的1 000篇作文(每學生5篇)，得195 769字，2 209個字種。各年級學生寫作用字量為：一級年級1 118字，四年級1 375字，五年級1 449字，六年級1 843字。在所有文章中，出現千次以上的有33字，而有316字者出現一次。

1.2.5 作文中的錯誤

Aitchison與Strad(1982)研究發現，無論是成人或兒童都是通過尋找特定的、顯著的發音特徵，而不是簡單地依照從左到右的再建構原則回憶字詞。在英語中，起始字母記得最多，而中間部份被遺忘，結尾部份被記住比開頭部份程度更低，拼寫的錯誤，以中間字母為多。這對於研究漢字不同部位的書寫錯誤有一定的啟發。

概括內地不同的研究結果(朱作仁，1988；朱智賢、黃仁發等，1990)，小學生的錯字類型可歸納為：增添個別筆畫、改變部份字形、改變字形結構。別字類型可歸納為：音同而義不同的別字、音形相近而義不同的別字、形近而音義不同的別字、雙音節詞中前後兩字位置顛倒的。

小學生寫作中每百字錯別字率，四年級1.23個，六年級0.60個。錯字與別字比例，四年級1:2.05，六年級1:1.96(祝新華，1993)。

1.3 文獻簡評

長期以來，中國內地、香港、台灣由於缺乏應有的交流，社會、文化的差異較大，各地所使用的漢語有不同的特點，學生在中國語文學習中所表現來的特點也不盡相同(如繁體、簡體之別對於學生字形學習就會帶來較大的差異)。因此，一個地方的研究結果並不一定適用

於另外兩地，相關的研究結果也有必要作出比較。

長篇作文測驗取樣，寫作有明確而具體的要求，學生往往不能全面地表現自己的水平。

從總體上看，對於漢字寫作中學生常用字特點的研究，仍十分欠缺。這方面較為成功的研究是張春興、邱維城 (1973)對小學生寫作中常用字的調查，由於他們是使用繁體字為調查對象，加上時間的變遷等，該研究結果並不完全適用於中國內地及香港。

由於對學生寫作中的用字用詞缺乏基礎研究，以致對於現今學生在小學應識多少字，應識哪些字，哪些字宜先識，哪些字可後識，以及由於經驗的因素，學生比較容易掌握哪些字等問題，均沒有學理依據；影響所及，教師在教學上也難以全面兼顧小學生的寫作特點及考慮學生的個別差異。長遠來說，對於訂定語文教學目標、編制教材、設計教學策略等，也缺乏一個重要的參考依據。

2. 研究設計

2.1 研究性質

本研究是一項基礎研究，研究小學生漢語寫作中使用字詞的特點，為識字、作文教材的編制與教學策略等提供一個理論的假設。

2.2 研究問題

(1) 各年級所用漢字總字數、字種數、字種率及其年級發展特點。
(2) 各年級所用漢字總詞數、詞種數、詞種率及其年級發展特點。
(3) 各年級的常用字及與臺灣相關研究的異同。
(4) 學生作文中的超用字、濫用字的發展特點。
(5) 學生平時語文成績、作文成績與作文字詞量的相關。
(6) 各年級錯別字出現率的發展特點。

2.3 研究方法

採用多個個案的研究分析法，統計學生作文中的用字、用詞，然後分析、推斷發展的原因。

2.4 研究取樣

2.4.1 研究對象　本研究從杭州市及湖州市中分別選取1所教學質量較好的小學，然後在該兩所小學各年級中選取一個中等水平的班級，最後按原有男女比例在班上隨機抽取一半的學生（刪去沒有參與全部寫作訓練的學生，得276名），以研究具有較高教學水平地區的學生的寫作用字用詞特點。對每個學生選用在一個學期內寫成的三篇作文為樣本，共得有效作文828篇（見表2）。

2.4.2 搜集資料　為了使研究的作文樣本能體現學生平時寫作的一般情形，作文取樣採取了以下幾個策略：

(1) 在一個學期的作文教學中對學生的作品自然取樣，以免因知道研究者要對學生作品精心研究，任課教師更具體地甚至作不必要的指導，學生則更用心地寫作。
(2) 作文題目盡可少作限制，以使學生能夠更好地發揮想象力、創造力，表現出其應有的寫作水平。因此，採用「全語文寫作教學」策略（謝錫金，1994），對學生進行訓練，要求任課教師對學生多加鼓勵，引導大膽寫作，寫自己想寫，寫自己能寫，最大限度地發揮出學生應有的水平，包括盡可能把學生的心理詞匯表現出來。作文題目有四種類型：自由題　教師不作任何規限，完全讓學生自由寫作；範例題　給定一個寫作範例（不定題目），讓學生根據自己的實際需要確定題目開展寫作；母子題　教師給一個母題，如《烏龜》，學生可以據此寫一個有關的題目，如《烏龜的自述》、《烏龜的故事》、《烏龜的構造》或《我與烏龜有個約會》等；半命題　給一個不完整的作文題目，如（×××與×××對話），要求學生根據自己的興趣補充完整後再寫；命題作文　教師給定題目，讓學生寫想象作文、童話等。根據以上的設想，設計1995-96學年第一學期的寫作教學題目，其中含三個取樣題目（見附錄）。
(3) 在開學穩定後、期中前後以及臨近期末的不同學習階段取樣，以避免開學時學習未進較佳的學習狀態或期末的應考心理帶來誤差。各年級作文取樣時間為：第一次在第4-5週；第二次在第12週，語文科期中測驗之後；第三次在第15、16週，新課結束而期末考試進行之前。為降低誤差，取樣安排不向任課教師及學生公布。

2.5 統計指標

漢字是語素文字，「詞」指在句子裡能運用的最小語言單位。從構詞角度看，漢字可分為三類：1.既可單獨成詞，又可與別的字組合成詞的字，如「心」，可以獨立成詞，也可與其他漢字構成眾多詞條；2.只能單獨成詞不能與別的字組合成詞的字，如「很、吧、最」等；3.不能單獨成詞只能和別的字組合成詞的字，如「雖、第、輝」等。基於研究的可行性以及對語文教學的參考作用，確定以下統計指標：

(1) 總字數　學生作文中出現的文字總數，重複出現的漢字也一并計算，但不計標題、標點符號、錯別字、用阿拉伯數字表示的日期計作1字。

(2) 字種數　每一個不同的漢字計1次，不計重複出現的字以及錯別字。

(3) 字種率　每篇作文的「字種數」與「總字數」之比。

(4) 字頻　每篇作文中每個漢字的出現次數。

(5) 超用字　學生在寫作中使用的，在以往所學的小學《語文》教材中從未出現過的或不要求掌握的漢字。

(6) 濫用字　在寫作中未曾使用的，但在小學《語文》教材中出現過並要求掌握的漢字。

(7) 總詞數　學生作文中出現的詞語總數，重複的詞也一并計算。

(8) 詞種數　每個不同的詞語計1次，不計重複出現的詞。

(9) 詞種率　文章的「詞種數」與「總詞數」之比（又稱詞語的多樣性）。

(10) 詞頻　學生作文中各個詞的出現次數。

2.6 資料處理

2.6.1 切分處理

兩位研究員首先討論，界定詞語的性質，然後分別試著劃分20份學生作文樣本，找出劃分有差異的詞語，然後分析原因，達到一致的劃分意見。為了減小意見分歧，特作以下規定：

(1) 採用最小單位法，即在句子中只要能表示一個明確而獨立意義的漢字，就再不與其他字組合構成詞語，即可成為單字詞就不與其他字一起構成二字或多字詞。

(2) 把所有的助詞「得」、「的」、「地」三字視為獨立的單音節詞。

(3) 人物姓名作為一個詞。

(4) 數詞和量詞合為一個詞。

其次，由打字員把所研究對象的作文錄入電腦，一位研究員在學生作文的電腦資料中先行劃分詞語，另一人再檢查修對，遇有分歧處再討論解決。最後，兩位研究員共同審閱學生的作文，找出錯別字。

2.6.2 計算處理

由我用大學電腦程式編寫自編好程式，進行數據處理。

2.7 研究限制

本研究採用個案研究的方法，並未在全國或浙江省抽樣，因而研究結果尚不能全面地代表全國或浙江省較高水平小學生的普遍寫作用字用詞的特點。同時，由於只選了研究對象所寫的三篇作文，因而未能全面反映研究對象已經掌握的字詞，「超用字」、「濫用字」數等只能作為初步的結論，並作為日後進一步研究的假設。在研究過程中，對學生用字用詞特點的原因只作了初步分析，有待通過晤談、觀察、實驗等方法証實。

3 統計結果與討論

3.1 總字詞數

從統計結果可見表3右，一年級能寫近80個漢字，二年級能寫150字，三年級近200字，四年級近400字，五六年級500字。學生每篇作文的總字數、總詞數均隨年級升高而增加。一年級學生寫的「短篇」多為片斷，也有是連貫或不連貫的短文，此結果顯示在小學一年級進行作文篇章的訓練是有可能的（以往一般在二年級才開始訓練）。字詞數較前一年級的增長，均以三年級為最快，在一年級的基礎上增長1倍以上。其主要原因是，現行小學語文教材在一年級下學期，二年級集中識大量的漢字，到四年級又出現一次字詞增長高峰，較前三年級增長近1倍。這是由於該時期學生已具備較多的生活經驗，學習經驗，抽象思維萌發，閱讀範圍擴大，閱讀量增多；在語文課中掌握了較多的漢字，初步學會寫記敘文，能較好地把前期所學的漢字在書面表達中運用。六年級學生的字詞總數增長不快，這與學生在四五年級能寫四五百個漢字左右，已達到現行教學綱要對小學生的字數要求有一定關係。

較之臺灣張春興等研究所得，一六年級分別能寫141字、213字、174字、255字的結論，本研究學生所寫篇幅更長，多出近1倍左右。

3.2 字詞種數

從表4中可看出小學生作文字種、詞種，以一年級發展最快，增長一倍以上，二至五年級學生字種的發展率較為一致，均在25%到30%之間，詞種數在四年級有一個發展高峰，同樣多的字種組成的新詞更多，所以能表現更多的意義。值得注意的是，字詞種數在六年級沒有甚麼進展，其中字種較之五年級下降了1/10，這可能與這至五年級學生所掌握的字詞已夠學生表達思想內容，六年級學生的文章篇幅基本無增長有關。

該結果與臺灣張春興等研究的字種比較，一年級學生增加234字，四年級增加384字，五年級743字，六年級129字，其區別，不能排除各地對學生的要求，學生水平高低，以及隨時代的發展學生語言能力提高等因素在起作用。

3.3 常用字比較

學生在寫作中經常使用的字即為寫作常用字，依出現頻率從高到低排列，本研究最常用的100字（見表5），多數是用以反映人際、學習、生活事件為主，可歸為以下幾種類型：

1. 人稱——我、人、們、他、爺、人、伯、媽、子、你、他、爺、自；
2. 動植物、物品名稱——貓、兔、這、天、書、花、樹、校、貓、河、水、家、球、面、事、那（指代）、心（想）、園；
3. 動作——來、到、看、學、去、見、想、出、要、會、動、吃、聽、問、用、回、等、別、生、起（來）、走、給（他）；
4. 感情——愛、美；
5. 形容——小、大、好、老、多、野、真、高、白；
6. 時間、空間——上、在、裡、下、中、後、邊；
7. 數量——一、個、只、付、年；
8. 助詞——的、了、著、地、得；

其他——是、有、不、就、過、還、和、時、可、把、麼、也、又、都、它、增、很、為、樣、像、同、沒、見、正。

臺灣研究認為小學生常用字一般與表達人際、動作、自然、情感、形容、日用品、方向、軀體、動物等有關（柯華葳等，1993），與本研究結果基本一致。

在出現頻率最高的100字中，本研究與臺灣張春興等研究有66個共同字，說明處於不同地區、不同時代、不同社會制度中，使用不同教材的學生所用的常用字是相對一致的，出現頻率愈高的漢字，愈可能成為兩個研究100個常用字中的共同字。具體分析：(1)在兩個研究中出現相交各處於第1—19位的字，全落在66個共同字中；(2)各處於第20—42位的字，落在66個共同字中的比例較高，臺灣研究有16字，占69.56%；本研究有21字，占91.30%；(3)各處於第43—74位的字，相同的字的出現比率較低，臺灣有23字，出現率71.88%；本研究有18字，出現率為56.25%；(4)各處於第75—100位的字，臺灣有8字，出現率為30.77%；本研究有8字，出現率為30.77%（見表6）。

兩個研究中的66個共同字，在100個常用字中的順序等次又是不一樣的，出現兩地差異，部份可能由於相同作文題目不同，年級略有差異的因素造成，但與學生使用不同的語文教材，有不同的生活經驗也有關係。

3.4 字詞種率

從表7可見，所有學生3篇作文的字種率，一至六年級較高，但從二年級以後有明顯下降的趨勢。文章篇幅增長，字種率一般會隨之降低，而詞種率從一至四年級明顯增大，到四年級達到高峰，五六年級保持較高的水平但略有下降。由於用一批相同的漢字可構成許多不同的詞語，因此即使在字種率發展不快的情況下詞種率也可有較高的發展速度。

對照分析發現，小學高低年級（一至四年級）字種率與詞種率的發展趨勢是互逆的，即字種率從高到低，而詞種率卻從低到高發展，隨著年級的提高，學生的寫作用詞的豐富性較高於用字的差異性（使用不同字）。在寫作教學中，對於高年級學生寫作不僅要求會使用更多的單字，更要求運用不同的詞語以準確地表達思想。

3.5 超用字、識用字

現行的語文教材對學生在各年級中應掌握的漢字作了規定，我們把語文教材中的生字作為學生課內掌握的漢字的依據。本研究中學生所使用的教材1-3年級的為浙江省九年制義務教材，4-6年級為在全國統編九年制義務教材基礎上改編而成的「四省市教材」，比較時採用學生所用的實際教材。

從整體上看，在寫作中學生使用課內所學漢字隨年級升高而增多，從一二年級學生看，學生使用課內所學漢字僅為60%、70%左右，而「超用字」卻高達40%、28%（見表8）。這個現象正說明，小學生使用一年級所

學的漢字來表達其思想感情是不夠的，且有學生掌握了比教材更多的漢字，從此可認為學生的會在書面語中使用的心理詞彙較在教材掌握的更多，這是一個值得注意的問題。存在這一現象，可能與當前家長重視家庭教育，傳媒對學生有直接或間接影響，教材要求學生掌握的字數較少有關。

與朱智賢等(1990)相關研究比較，本研究中的學生超用字更多，約高了一倍，因為朱智賢的研究對象包括農村、城鎮的學校，而本研究只以城市學校的學生為對象。城市學生接受語文學習的條件，如學校教學水平、家長對學生教育的重視程度顯然較農村的學生更好。

同時，各年級學生又有1/3至1/2在課內所學的漢字未能在書面表達中使用。這當然與本次研究所採用學生的作文篇數還不夠多，難以保證學生把會用的漢字都表現出來有關，但語文教材的編寫應從中得到一些啟發。例如，學生在口語中已掌握的、日常生活中常用的、易學易用的應作為優先選字的原則，這樣使學生即使在小學低年級因學拼音占用相當多的時間也能學到較多的字詞。

3.6 語文、作文成績

按錄上學期期末考試學生的語文成績，學生平時作文的平均得分，用積差相關計算所得，語文成績與用字總數的相關為 0.02，與用詞總數的相關為 0.01；作文成績與用字總數的相關為 0.11，與用詞總數的相關為 0.10。由此可見，學生的語文、作文成績與學生的作文篇幅、作文字種數和詞種數沒有直接的關係。

3.7 錯字別字

錯別字是小學生作文時經常會出現的問題。表9顯示，小學生一開始寫作就會出現較多的錯字（各年級比較比率最高），且一直連續到四年級，到五六年級才有明顯的下降。別字在一二年級出現較少，這是因為學生所學的漢字不多，較少會因混淆的原因把其他字用來代替所要寫的字；三年級的別字隨所學的漢字增多而增多，四年級到了最高峰，五年級開始因學生漢字的鞏固及對相互字形的進一步區分別字有明顯的下降，六年級已降到較低的水平。各年級比較而言，四年級學生出現的錯別字率最多，這是因為這時學生寫作內容增多，作文篇幅增長較快，而漢字掌握又欠精確。從總比率看，四年級錯別字出現率到最高點。這次研究由於在教學環境下取樣，所以學生出現的錯別字比率不高，但如在考試條件下取樣此比率定有較大的上升。五六年級儘管有明顯的下降，但還保持有較高的比率，在教學中應進一步鞏固識字。

4. 結　論

(1) 小學生作文的總字數、總詞數隨年級升高而增加。一年級會寫80字左右的短篇；字詞數以三年級、四年級增長最快，五年級學生所寫字數已接近現行教學綱要對小學生寫作四五百字的字數要求，六年級增長較慢。

(2) 低年級學生的作文字種、詞種、與總字詞數增長模式基本一致，以三年級發展最快，字種在二年級開始發展趨於平緩，其中六年級下降了1/10。詞種在四年級仍有快速發展，但五六年級進步趨緩。

(3) 出現頻率最高的100字（最常用字）多數是用以反映人際、學習、生活事件，可以歸納為反映人稱、動作、感情、形容、時間、數量、助詞及其它類型等。

(4) 字種率二年、三年級較高，四年級開始明顯下降，詞種率從二年到四年級逐步提高，五六年級穩中有降。字種率與詞種率發展有互逆趨向。隨年級的提高，學生的作文詞語的豐富性較高於漢字的差異性。寫作教學中要注意引導學生使用豐富的詞語，而不是更多的漢字。

(5) 超用字的比率以二年級最高，分別達40%、28%，以後逐漸下降。在寫作中學生使用課內所學漢字隨年級升高而增多，但各年級仍有1/3至1/2的漢字未能在書面表達中出現(常用字)。編寫教材應重視學生學習生字的有利條件，避免「要用的不學，要學的沒用」的情況，開發學生心理詞彙。

(6)學生的語文、作文成績高低與學生所寫文章的篇幅，字種、詞種數沒有直接的關係。對學生寫作字數不必作出規定，只要學生認為已把自己該表達的思想內容表達清楚就可以了。

(7)小學生一開始寫作就會出現較多的錯字，錯字上升的比率一直持續到四年級，五六年級有明顯的下降。別字在小學低年級較少，二年級明顯增多，四年級到了最高峰，五六年級儘管有明顯的下降但仍有較高比率。四年級錯別字出現率達到最高點。

(8)較之臺灣張春興等研究，本研究學生篇幅更長，字種數更多。處於不同地區、不同時代、不同社會制度中使用不同教材的學生，所用的常用字有相對一致性。兩地差異的原因：不能排除各地對學生的要求不同，隨時代的發展的因素在起作用，但學生語言能提高，取樣

作文題目本一、二年級略有差異等因素在起作用。

本文探討為小學生寫作中字詞使用特點研究的開始，以後有待進一步擴大取樣範圍，考慮更多的學生群體，文章體裁等深入研究更多的問題，如為各年級的發展提供更為可靠的數據，並揭示敏感期，高原期(如字種、詞種的發展在六年級)是否確實存在等。

附注

參加作文教學實驗的教師有杭州大學教育系蔣偉民、姚安娜，杭州市保俶塔小學張延耀、翁根娣、鄭美英、金儉、章群芳、汪家燕、雒荷蓮以及科研室王任，湖州市新風小學張德根、王桂芹、沈麗、沈麗娟、吳芳芳、錢貞、凌佩華、馬慧等，數據統計由浙江大學(原杭州大學)計算機系鄭洪講師完成。

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附錄一

表 1　　現代常用字統計

字　表	最常用字	常用字	次常用字	合　計
漢字頻度表(1976)	560(80.02)	807(15.01)	1033(3.97)	2400(99)
增訂常用字表(1979)	560(80)	940(16)	700(2)	2200(98)
現代漢語常用字表(1988)	--	2500(97.97)	1000	3500

注：表中括號內爲漢字出現的頻率（參見陳明遠，1981；鄭林曦，1982 等）

表 2　　作文研究樣本（篇）

	年　級						總 計
	一	二	三	四	五	六	
男　生	75	69	60	42	75	69	390
女　生	69	66	84	90	60	69	438
總　計	144	135	144	132	135	138	828

表 3　　各年級學生平均每篇作文總字數、總詞數及年級增長

	年　級						總 數
	一	二	三	四	五	六	
字　數	76.33	159.44	197.17	383.73	474.06	503.44	295.93
		108.88*	26.66*	94.62*	24.06*	6.20*	
詞　數	44.45	100.58	116.64	232.25	287.82	309.01	180.32
		126.28*	15.97*	99.12*	22.64*	7.36*	

注：標有*號的分別爲各年級學生總字詞數較前一年級總字數的增長百分比

表4　小學生作文字種、詞種數及其年級增長

	年級						總數
	一	二	三	四	五	六	
字種	462	1048	1352	1759	2192	1972	2578
		(126.84)	(29.01)	(30.10)	(24.62)	(-10.04)	
詞種	953	2085	2733	6214	7574	7748	18148
		(118.78)	(31.08)	(127.37)	(21.89)	(2.66)	

注：括號內分別爲各年級學生字種詞種較前一年級增長的比率(%)

表5　本研究出現頻率最高的100字與臺灣張春興等研究(1973)比較

項目	漢字
本研究中頻率最高的100字	的我了一大是有小上在們不來這著個就到地天家裡天媽看子書學去好你過老那還下和多時中可他生得花野起把見麼也又都想出要會面心付只真它愛走煙能給很後美水間為樣像園自高動自出樹事年吃沒兒球回校用師聽貓等正邊別河
兩研究共有的	我的一們是了就到有在不去大來上家他人好看天時也要媽都那多這個老師學和後著中中裡生得可吃為還過小會起下子又年事同地面把心高真沒美書開(66字)
本研究中有、臺灣研究中無的字	你花野見麼想出付只它走煙能給很水樣像園自動自樹兒球校用聽貓等正邊別河(34字)
本研究中無、臺灣研究中有的字	國很爸日太士車說玩候最出才常廖文其所打行弟游樂每做因對敬從總與早然父(34字)

表 6　本研究與臺灣研究(1973)100 個最常用字中的共同字及其等次比較

項　目	各字在不同研究中所居頻率等次														
共同的字	我	的	一	們	是	了	就	到	有	在	不	去	大	來	上
台灣研究	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
本研究	2	1	4	11	6	3	17	18	7	10	12	29	20	13	9
共同的字	家	他	人	好	看	天	時	也	要	媽	都	那	多	這	個
台灣研究	16	17	18	19	21	22	23	24	26	27	28	30	32	35	36
本研究	21	42	5	30	25	23	39	51	56	24	53	34	38	14	16
共同的字	老	師	學	和	後	愛	著	回	中	裡	生	得	可	吃	爲
台灣研究	37	38	39	40	41	44	45	46	47	48	51	52	53	54	56
本研究	33	93	28	37	70	64	15	90	40	22	43	44	41	86	74
共同的字	還	過	小	會	起	下	子	又	年	事	同	地	面	把	心
台灣研究	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	68	70	74	78	80
本研究	35	32	8	57	47	36	26	52	85	84	82	19	58	48	59
共同的字	高	眞	沒	美	書	開									
台灣研究	81	83	85	92	96	98									
本研究	79	62	87	71	27	73									

表 7　各年級所有學生 3 篇作文字種率、詞種率

	年　級						總數
	一	二	三	四	五	六	
字種率	0.0420	0.0487	0.0476	0.0347	0.0343	0.0284	0.0105
詞種率	0.1489	0.1536	0.1627	0.2002	0.1949	0.1817	0.1215

表 8　　學生作文中的超用字、濫用字

	年　級					
	一	二	三	四	五	六
已學且使用的字	276	746	1110	1588	1962	1780
	59.74*	71.18*	82.10*	90.28*	89.51*	90.26*
超　用　字	186	302	242	171	230	192
	40.25*	28.82*	17.89*	9.72*	10.49*	9.74*
用過的漢字總數	462	1048	1352	1759	2192	1972
濫　用　字	166	380	589	969	1002	1486
	39.81**	33.74**	34.66**	37.90**	33.81**	45.50**
學過的漢字總數	442	1126	1699	2557	2964	3266

注：標有*分別爲各年級學生「已學且使用的字」、「超用字」占學生「用過的漢字總數」的比例(%)，標有**爲各年級學生「濫用字」占「學過漢字總數」的比例(%)。

表 9　　學生作文每百字錯別字比率

	年　級					
	一	二	三	四	五	六
錯　字	0.3548	0.2462	0.2691	0.3000	0.1703	0.0849
別　字	0.1091	0.0697	0.2078	0.3179	0.0953	0.1598
錯別字	0.4639	0.3159	0.4769	0.6179	0.2656	0.2447

附錄二

寫作訓練、研究取樣題目

一年級：快樂的寒假（母子題）、找春天（母子題）*、跟老師說悄悄話（母子題）、小白兔搬南瓜（範圍題）**、寫童話（自由題）、買×××半命題）***。

二年級：我愛×××(半命題)、貓醫生過河（命題、童話）*、春天的故事（範圍題）、西瓜（母子題）**、×××（自由題）、我有一支神筆（命題作文、想象作文）***。

三年級：×××的故事（半命題）、爸爸、爺爺、媽媽（母子題）*、老鼠一家童話）、×××與×××對話（半命題）**、六一節、我想×××（半命題）、聽音樂編故事或廣告詞（範圍題）***。

四年級：鼠（母子題）、美麗的×××（半命題）*、寫一件事（範圍題）、地球（母子題）**、我和×××有個約會（半命題）、寫出你最想寫的東西以表現你最高的作文水平（自由題）***。

五年級：過年的時候（範圍題）、游×××（半命題）*、有關星空的話題（範圍題）、一個×××的人（半命題）**、記一件×××的事（半命題）、×××（自由題）***。

六年級：大家都誇×××（範圍題）、一件×××的事（半命題）*、公園的早晨（母子題）、書亭（母子題）**、讀×××有感（半命題）、我愛學校（母子題）***。

注：標有*號的是第一次研究取樣的作文題目；標有**號的是第二次研究取樣的作文題目；標有***號的是第三次研究取樣的作文題目。

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香港中學中史教科書應吸收新的史學研究成果

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香港的中學中史教科書目前內容全面、體系完整、敘事客觀、行文平實、製作精美等諸多優點，但也有些值得完善、改進和提高的地方，如筆者以為課程等方面略嫌陳舊，對中外史學界新的研究成果吸收不夠等。本文以一個在香港中學中史教科書廣泛流行卻面頗不盡準確的關於元代歷史的說法為對象，進行多方面分析，期以說明香港的中學中史教科書有吸收新的史學研究成果的必要。

Hong Kong's Secondary School Textbooks on Chinese History Should Absorb Fresh Historical Research Findings

Hong Kong's secondary school textbooks on Chinese history have many commendable merits, such as balanced structure, objective narration, well-grounded argument and exquisite design. There are, however, a few areas where improvements are needed, and one of them is the slowness in absorbing fresh historical research findings. Many outdated concepts or sayings which have been convincingly proven false by history researchers are still prevalent. This article addresses this problem by focusing on analyzing a popular yet inaccurate saying on the history of Yuan dynasty and argues that the contents of Hong Kong's secondary school textbooks on Chinese history need updating.

廣泛流行然而卻不盡準確的關於元代歷史的說法：元朝各級官府的高級官吏，必須由蒙古人或色目人擔任，漢人最多只能做到副職

香港的中學中史教科書對蒙古人統治下的元朝社會有一些頗為過時的描述。一個明顯的例子是筆者早前曾從歷史的角度加以探討的「九儒十丐」說（方，1996）。另一個就是本文所擬評析的「元朝各級官府的高級官吏，必須由蒙古人或色目人擔任，漢人最多只能做到副職」的說法。元代實行四等人制，被歸入漢人、南人中的漢族人的確備受歧視，這是無庸置疑的事實。但這並不意味著元代的漢族人不可擔任各級官府的高官或正職。事實上，元代有相當多的漢族人在各級官府擔任高級職務，其中不少是正職。這點我們可以從下面的例子清楚地看出。

元朝的中央政府機構裡，中書省總理行政，其最高長官為中書令，典領百官，會決庶務（宋，1976）。自元世祖忽必烈始，這一職務由皇太子往往兼任，通常他所做的只是月初到中書省坐門日裁而已。因此，中書省的實際長官是正一品銜的右、左丞相。他們「統百官，幸百司，居令之天（宋，1976）」右、左丞相之下有從一品的「或丞相」平章政事，正一品的「副丞相」右、左丞相從一品的參知政事，上述大體統稱為「宰執」。元代擔任「宰執」的漢族人為數不算少，擔擔任右、左丞相和平章政事的就有：右丞相史天澤；左丞相賈勝、賈惟一；平章政事王文統、趙孟頫、史天澤、張惠、宋子貞、張易、梁曾、張九思、虞德耀、王磐、董士恩、李孟、張珪、章閭、劉正、王毅、敦睦、賈惟一、王好禮、樂實等人（宋，1976；王，1992）。

編修院在元朝「掌天下兵甲機密之務，凡宣答宿衛、處置事宜、頒降制旨、簽閱奏章、勳功轉官、論制誥度，無不由之」（宋，1976）。其最高長官名義上是一般由皇太子兼任的樞密使，但實際長官是知樞密院事（從一品），副知樞密院事（正二品），副樞（從二品），簽院（正三品），同簽（正四品），院判（正五品）各數員。蒙古統治者防範漢人，習慣如此之甚，但即使如此，仍有相當多的漢族人在樞密院擔任高官。其中擔任院中最高職的就有：知院賈均；同知李孟、李謙恭、劉哈剌不花、魏初因不花（劉，魏兩人均為取有蒙古名的漢人）；副樞趙孟頫、史天澤、陳祖仁、吳元圭、右丞、

李璮、商挺、張文謙、王約等（朱、1976；王、1992）。值得指出的是，至元七年（1270）和二十八年（1291）剛知、知院之職先後設立前，編修副使在翰林院的地位僅次於由皇太子兼任的翰林史（即以中統初年擔任副使的趙璧與史天澤在院中的實際地位是很高的）。

至於一掌祖宗百官善惡、政治得失」的御史臺，也有一位漢人（賈惟一）任御史臺首席長官御史大夫（從一品），而御史臺的第二號人物御史中丞（正二品）則有近一半位漢人擔任，他們包括張起巖、魏初、崔彧、楊居寬、李璮、程思廉、何榮祖、張雄飛、張宴、劉哈剌不花、耿煥、董文用、董士珍、董守簡、張珪、何瑋等（朱、1976；王、1992）。

在地方上，我從一品的官中書省、一掌國政兼統燕薊、鎮邊陲」的都省為表率（朱、1976），其首長是從一品的丞相、平章政事、正二品的右、左丞，以及從一品的參政。漢人封疆大吏中擔任過行省丞相之職的有史天澤、高興、賈惟一、劉國傑、張士信等人。至於平章政事多過幾十人，計有張惠、高興、程鉅夫、董士選、王約勝、呂天祐、史格、何瑋、高昉、姚燧、史弼、劉國傑、賈住傑、費寀、趙訥、張養、高家奴、周仝、李珏、喬簣、劉整、張文謙、李德輝、許君祥、許衮甫、張驥、梁子中、商挺、郝祖忠、李好文、劉哈剌不花、蔡德謙、張禧等。元末尚有李思齊、孔興、王宦、王信、方國珍、方國珍、方明善、李克彝、申屠、劉益、郭嵩、張士誠、陳友定、張思道、張善、張士德、馮德等十多人（朱、1976；王、1992）。

從以所列舉的例子，大們不難看出，在元朝各級政府由們擔任高級官職的漢族人是相當多的。事實上，在《元史》、《新元史》、和《蒙兀兒史記》所作傳的六百四名、品以上的官員中，漢族人占了四零九位，即總數的百分之四十七（王、1992）。不僅如此，漢人在元朝官府裡做正職的，除了上面所列舉的在中書省、樞密院、御史臺及行中書省擔任高官的漢族人世外，在六部中任職的書的，亦與治皆是。綜合來看，漢族人在元朝各級政府不僅任職總要者甚眾，而且擔任正職者也為數不少。由此可見，明習「元朝各級官府的高級官吏，必須由蒙古人或色目人擔任，漢人最多只能做到副職」的說法並不是元朝現實的準確表述。我們這樣說同元朝存在著嚴重的種族歧視的事實並不矛盾。元代漢族可以做高官任正職的事實，並不意味著元朝沒有嚴重的種族歧視，因為儘管漢人在元朝可以做大官，任正職，但就人口比例來說，以漢人佔元朝總人口的九成以上而言，其任職總要者卻只佔高官總數的一半之強，漢人受無疑問是受到壓制的。而且元朝政府自登位到亡後，在中書省等缺人自的任命上，經過一段時間的摸索與調整，也確實逐漸形成一套不成文的規定：右丞相由蒙古人擔任，左丞相由蒙古人、漢人、色目人擔任，其餘平章政事、右丞、左丞、參知政事、則由蒙古、漢人、色目人參用（周、顧、1993）。然而我們不能因為元代存在著種族歧視就斷言漢人不能在元廷做高官，也不能任正職。這同我們不能因為元代知識份子地位低於唐末明清的士人就說他們與乞丐同列社會末流是一樣的道理。元朝統治者用漢人，並不是他們喜歡漢人，而是因為漢族人數的眾多以及漢人有管理國家的長期傳統和豐富經驗等諸多因素，蒙古統治者不得不任用相當多的漢人來協助他們治理天下。

事實上，同中國（含香港）歷史上另外幾個王朝的異族直接統治的時期相比，元朝的漢人進入官場上層的機會並不算太差。就漢族大臣參政的高官的比率來說，元代略低於實行中央機構滿漢複職制（即中國大學士、六部長官尚書和侍郎、都察院左都御史和副左都御史、以及通政使司和各寺、院、府、監的正副長官，同時由滿、漢官員擔任一職兩官）的清朝（杜、1997），但卻毫無疑問高於實施滿族統治下的香港、史不用說日治時期的台島。

歷史教科書應吸收新的史學研究成果

既然一元朝各級官府的高級官吏，必須由蒙古人或色目人擔任，漢人最多只能做到副職」等說法不是元代社會的真實反映，那麼為甚麼香港的中史教科書還流行如此說法呢？主要原因恐怕是大多數教科書的編寫者對史學界相關問題的研究情況不熟悉，正是「未治舊傳統的知識對學者趙翼的說法（趙、1984）。

知易的問題在其它的朝代考成多或多或少地存在。把過時的知識傳授給年輕一代，嚴格來講，是一種不負責任的做法。要避免這種大家都不想看到的情況發生，就必須讓通史教科書盡量吸收新的史學研究成果。這個觀點大概沒人反對。但各說地講，此事說來容易做來難。道理很簡單，因精力和學識的局限，很少有通史教科的作者對自己個斷代的有精湛的研究，且跨中外史學界在中史研究領域的日個最新成果更是困難。在當今這個信息爆炸的時代，中港台、日本、北美、歐洲各地每年都有眾多的學者發表多得讓人眼花繚亂的研究成果。以中國大陸為例，通史、和學者較為熟悉的朝代如元代，平均每年也有近十種專著和上百篇文章出版和發表（王、1992；

1994）一大型通史著作的編寫，由於常常是集體合作，往往有經驗讓精通本朝代歷史的專家來寫，但像中學中史教科書這類小型項目，很難做到專家寫專史，要求通史教材，特別是中學中史教材的作者對所有歷史階段都專精，對史學界所有重大問題的最新研究成果都知曉，是一種不合情理，甚至有點吹毛求疵的要求，這些確是實際的困難，但另一方面，教科書作者也不應該因為有以上所列舉的困難就裹足不前，陳陳相因，單靠教科書應該盡量提供最新的準確知識給讀者，如何做到這點，似應當教科書的作者留心自己研究領域以外的其它斷代的最新研究動態，教科書編好後，亦應多方徵求有關專家的意見，並根據他們的建議盡量作相應的修改和補充，而學術界的研究者亦應主動同教科書出版業溝通，讓自己的研究成果超出狹小的專家圈子，惟有這樣，才能提高教科書的質量，最大限度地發揮歷史的功能。

除了對新的史學研究成果不熟悉，吸收不夠外，另一個導致香港中學中史教科書因襲過時的觀念的原因是本港教科書作者過多地互相利用他人課本的內容，較少自己獨特的看法和寫法，這點我們可以從本港不同的出版商刊印的中史教科書的內容驚人雷同的事實清楚地看出。事實上，香港課程發展議會所編的《中國歷史科課程綱要》，對中國歷史上的主要問題及事件，所述是相當籠統的，並沒有很具體的要求，如甲部講到元朝時，一九八一年的《課程綱要（中一至中三適用）》，僅僅要求「行：一、蒙古人為游牧民族，能征慣戰，滅南宋前已建立橫跨歐亞之大帝國；入主中國後，施行高壓統治，強分階級，苛虐百姓，征斂無度，加以權臣擅政，皇室內鬨，加帝又荒淫怠政，於是群雄並起，元朝遂亡」（香港課程發展議會，1982）。而九七年的《課程綱要（中一至中三適用）》則更簡單，只在中學一年級課題六「元代的高壓統治」下，建議兩項教學重點：「1）認識元朝的高壓統治；2）探討元朝覆亡的原因」（香港課程發展議會，1997）。也就是說，一九八七年以後，元代蒙人不能做高官，任正職一等不準確的概念在香港中學中史教科書裡的流行，與教科書的作者有極大的關係。

其實，包括一些中學中國歷史教師在內的有識之士，對香港中學中史教科書的部分內容與史學界的研究成果脫節的情況，是有所認識的，問題是，即使中學教師知道教科書的某些內容過時甚至錯誤，在考試這個指揮棒的驅使下，他們大概也不敢不讓教科書，單靠官方考試的標準答案同各類教科書所提供的答案是大體一致的，所以要從根本上解決香港中學中史教科書部分內容過時的問題，關鍵在於考試局和教科書的作者。

結論

有關「元朝各級官府的高級官吏，必須由蒙古人或色目人擔任，漢人最多只能做到副職」的說法在香港中學中史教科書裡廣泛流傳的事實，說明香港中史教科書在吸收新的史學研究成果方面仍有有待改進之處。「下里巴人」的中學中史教科書惟有盡量吸收「陽春白雪」的史學研究成果才能充分發揮其傳授準歷史知識的功能。

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Language Learning and the Mother Tongue: A Personal Experience

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This paper is a personal reflection on the author's experience of language learning in different periods of her life. The contemporary debates in Hong Kong over mother tongue teaching prompted reflection on her early years with the learning of English as a mother tongue, and how this laid a basis for the effective learning of several other languages that began relatively late, on entry to secondary school at the age of fourteen. Each experience of language learning, in different conditions and at different phases of life, is described and a broad set of conclusions reached. Effective language learning is most likely when systematic and thorough teaching is provided and when there is a learning motivation that is intrinsic and linked to appreciation for the culture of the language community. It can be enhanced by a period of immersion in the language community.

語文學習和母語：我的個人體驗

[illegible]

Learning the mother tongue

My earliest memory of language learning goes back to my first grade in primary school, when I suffered severe chest problems and had to be kept out of school for much of the year. Fortunately, in the first month at school I had learned the alphabet and become excited about reading. As a result, during the months at home, books were my constant companions, especially several books of fairy tales with stories such as Cinderella, Red Riding Hood and the Wolf, Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs, and the Princess and the Pea. I have a vivid memory of my delight, when I sounded out a word in one of these children's stories, and then was able to match this sound with something that had meaning in my repertoire of speech. I also remember following my mother around the house with a book clutched in one hand, pointing to words and asking her, "How do I pronounce this word, and that word?"

Somehow the power of words had gripped me from an early age, and the exciting links between words and the world of ideas and objects had captured my imagination. I was a passionate reader throughout my eight years in primary school. I grew up in a monolingual home and only started to study other languages when I entered secondary school at age 14. This was the case even though Toronto of the 1950s was already a multicultural city, with areas of the city where Italian, Portuguese, Chinese, Korean, and Greek were spoken as much as English.

Secondary school experience with foreign languages

During my four years in secondary school, I studied four languages: Greek, Latin, French and German. All were taught in a formal way with a strong emphasis on learning the structure and grammar of the language, building up

knowledge of new vocabulary and doing extensive exercises in translation both to and from English. Relatively little attention was given to speaking the languages, even French and German. The result of this education was that I came to appreciate language learning as a kind of discipline of the mind and as a window on other worlds, other cultures, other systems of meaning.

From my study of Greek, I came to love Greek mythology, the heroes and heroines of the Trojan War and imagination-gripping phrases such as "rosy-fingered dawn" from Homer's *Iliad*. From Virgil's *Aeneid* I got the sense of the epic history of a nation over centuries, the ups and downs the Roman people experienced, summed up in phrases such as "there were tears for things and human destinies touched the heart." In German I enjoyed Albert Schweitzer's reflections on a life of music and of service to humanity in *Leben und Denken* (Living and Thinking). In French I enjoyed Saint Exupery's tales of early flying experience, *Le Petit Prince*, and French Canadian stories such as Gabrielle Roy's *Tin Flute*.

Throughout my secondary school years, language study was more a discipline than a means of communication. This situation continued in university, when I studied Classics and read in depth the works of Plato, Aristotle, Aeschylus, Sophocles, Pindar, Virgil, Horace, Catullus, Seneca and others, all in the original Greek and Latin. I also continued with some studies of French and English literature. However, there was very little opportunity to use the modern languages I had learned for oral communication.

Language learning for communication

Only when I moved to Hong Kong in 1967, at the age of twenty one, did language learning become an urgent matter of communication. I found myself living in Diamond Hill, a part of Kowloon where little English was used or heard, and within a week of arrival I had started my studies in Cantonese. I was extremely fortunate to find a teacher who believed I should start with learning Chinese characters as well as colloquial Cantonese and who gave me systematic instruction in character learning, in the structure of written Chinese and in the spoken language. Sometimes my teacher would make me repeat a sentence as often as ten times, in order to ensure that I had mastered the tonal structure. This was one of the most difficult challenges, quite different from anything I had experienced with European languages. I remember the sense of putting my voice, long used to the flow of English, into a vice as I tried to master the seven tones of Cantonese. Only after months of intense practice, did I begin to realise how the discipline of tonal structure made possible subtle variations on the seven tones and thus a much broader range of expressive emphasis than in my native language.

I loved these language lessons, and found myself constantly pondering the meaning of the characters and what they revealed to me of Chinese people's culture and ways of thinking. This may well have resulted from the pleasure I had had over the years in reading and exploring ideas in my own language of English, and also from the way in which I had learnt both classical and modern languages of Europe during my secondary and tertiary education in Canada. It was somehow a natural thing for me to see language as a window into other worlds of thought and meaning, others ways of describing and making sense out of the world. The more I enjoyed reading in my mother tongue, the more I felt enticed to explore the worlds that opened up to me through other languages.

What was different from past experience in my study of Cantonese, however, was the experience of total immersion in another cultural system. I taught in Heep Yunn School and though my lessons were given entirely in English, outside of the classroom I was immersed in a world of Cantonese. This was the case among students and in the teachers' room where I had a small desk among many others, and most colleagues communicated with one another in Cantonese. In addition, I was living within a Chinese family where Cantonese was the language of communication, and constant exposure to television and radio allowed the language to flow through my brain, with its clear ringing tones, day and night. Before very long I was able to communicate quite effectively, and within a couple of years I was able to teach and preach in Sunday school and church circles in the language.

From Cantonese to Putonghua

The constant exposure to Chinese educational and church circles drew me more and more to a life of thought

within the culture and gave me a growing curiosity to explore China itself. This was something very difficult for a Canadian to do during the Cultural Revolution decade. However, I decided to learn Putonghua in order to be prepared for the day China would open up, and signed up for a full-time program at the Chinese University of Hong Kong in 1975. There I had lessons in Mandarin, as it was then called, as well as modern and classical written Chinese. My teachers despaired at the task of getting rid of a strong Cantonese accent in my spoken Mandarin, but I learned the tonal structure systematically and gained a deeper and more scholarly grasp of the written language. In Hong Kong of the mid 1970s, there were minimal opportunities to speak the language and only occasional chances to hear it spoken, such as those provided by the movies. I was fortunate, however, in the fact that my Chinese mother, in the home where I had lived for six years, was a teacher of Mandarin in a well known private school, and we remained in close touch after I moved away from her home in 1974.

Only when I went to Shanghai in 1980, and spent two years teaching at Fudan University, a prestigious national institution drawing students from all over China, did I begin to use Putonghua as a daily means of communication. Immediately I discovered that the year of systematic study I had done at the Chinese University of Hong Kong stood me in very good stead. Within a very short period, I was fluent, and indeed as comfortable in speaking Putonghua as Cantonese. Over subsequent years, I maintained fluency in both languages but noticed that I had a rich professional and academic vocabulary in Putonghua, which contrasted with the vocabulary of daily life I had acquired in Cantonese.

During the two years in Shanghai, I also took up French again, having regular lessons with a French student. Bilingualism was becoming a more and more important aspect of the Canadian identity and I did not want to be left behind. Both then and later, when I worked in a bilingual context in the Canadian Embassy in Beijing, I found the systematic studies of my high school days provided a solid foundation for an increasing oral fluency in the language. This was possible in spite of the fact that I never had the opportunity of immersion in a French speaking environment.

During my Shanghai days, immersion in a Putonghua speaking academic environment drew me further into philosophical and cultural studies. I attended lectures in Chinese philosophy given in Putonghua, and joined an informal study group in a home, where we read the Four Books of Confucius in a traditional way. The teacher was a worker from a family with high Communist credentials. He had never learned any alphabetic language but had attached himself as disciple to a traditional scholar and made an exhaustive study of various classical texts. I prepared for these lessons in a way that greatly helped my written Chinese - copying out several pages of the Great Learning, then the Mencius, in a notebook on double spaced lines. Then while the teacher explained each line, I wrote his explanation in modern Chinese.

One day during one of these lessons, the teacher mentioned the fact he had heard I also could speak Cantonese, and asked if I would be willing to read a page of the classical text in Cantonese. I agreed, and did so to the best of my ability, while he marvelled at a foreigner who could read in a southern dialect he could not understand. His next request was that I should read the text in English! It was only then that I reflected on the fact that this might have been possible in Japanese, Korean or Vietnamese, and on the very deep differences between alphabetic and ideographic writing systems.

After completing my doctorate in London and returning to Canada to start a teaching career at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education in 1984, I began a new period of my life. It was marked by regular research visits to China every year, and an interlude between 1989 and 1991 when I was seconded from the university to the Canadian Embassy in Beijing, and made responsible for cultural and academic affairs between Canada and China.

In addition to research interviews and ceremonial speech giving, I became more and more accustomed to delivering academic lectures in Putonghua, and in 1994 I taught a graduate course on the subject of international academic relations to a group of graduate students and young faculty at the Higher Education Research Institute of the Huazhong University of Science and Technology in Wuhan. I still remember the stimulating conversations I had with a Chinese graduate student, who had come with me from Canada to assist, over which Chinese phrase would best translate such concepts as centre and periphery, nomothetic and idiographic approaches to knowledge, phenomenology, and postmodernism. The interesting point was that there were often two or three possibilities to choose from!

From Chinese to Japanese

In 1993, I faced a new challenge in language learning. I was invited to give a plenary address at an international conference on Education and Modernization held at Waseda University in Tokyo, and met a young Japanese professor from Nagoya University who spoke flawless Putonghua, but very little English. He asked me if I would consider spending a sabbatical year in Japan. The idea of doing a comparative study of internationalization in Japanese universities immediately attracted me, yet I knew this would be a demanding adventure. I could not accept such a generous invitation without committing myself to an extensive period of Japanese language study.

Within a week of my return to Toronto from the Tokyo conference, I started studies in Japanese with one of my doctoral students. This made a busy academic schedule much busier, with a two hour lesson and six hours of homework to be fitted in every week! Jokingly, I referred to this as my "mental gymnastics" and reminded myself of how my professors of Latin and Greek had told me, years earlier, that no matter what kind of future use I might find for my proficiency in these languages, I would come out of the Classics program with "a mind like a steel trap!" Once again I was honing my mind, this time with a difficult Asian language. These part time studies of Japanese went on for three years, and by the time I arrived in Nagoya for a six-month sabbatical in January of 1996 I was able to carry out simple conversations, and find my way around the country without too much difficulty.

Several months of near immersion helped me improve my comprehension, especially in the area of education, the field I know best, also to have greater confidence in speaking. However, I knew it would be years before I could reach the level I had in Putonghua, and actually be able to lecture in Japanese. I also had the confidence that, given a longer period of immersion and continuing structured study, this would be entirely possible. Unfortunately, it was not to be possible, for the time at least. However, a fascinating dimension of my experience of learning Japanese as a mature educator lay in the fact that I found myself constantly watching the learning process. It was as if a second self was standing on the side, observing and commenting on the language acquisition process. Perhaps this is the kind of meta-cognitive experience we hope to encourage in children, in order for their learning to become effective and pleasurable, and to constitute the beginning of a lifelong habit.

The cultural rewards were also tremendous. I found myself constantly reflecting on the connections between Japanese and Chinese, the links in the arts, calligraphy, philosophy and lifestyle, also the striking differences. Terms such as *ikebana* (living flowers), *shogun* (general), *sado* (the way of tea), *kimono* (the dress thing) took on new life for me when I understood the *kanji* or Chinese characters in which they were expressed. The fact that I could understand a great deal of what I saw around me through a direct understanding of the *kanji*, even when I was not sure how a particular phrase was pronounced in Japanese, made me feel at home in the culture.

While eating lunch at a Japanese restaurant in Toronto, not long before leaving for Japan, my husband asked me what was the meaning of the words written on our paper chopstick holders, and I told him they meant "carved wood." "How did you learn such an advanced term in your beginner's Japanese lessons?" he asked. I replied, "I am not sure of the pronunciation, but the meaning of the *kanji* is clear!" Later in Japan, I experienced some of the delight I had known as a child, at the matching of a word from the page with a word in my speech repertoire, when I put a familiar sound together with a *kanji*, known to me from my knowledge of Chinese characters.

Language learning and the mother tongue

What is the relevance of these bits of my life experience to issues of language learning and the role of the mother tongue? Not being a linguist, nor any longer a language teacher, I am not certain. Perhaps the first point is that I do not seem to have been handicapped in learning other languages by the fact that the first fourteen years of my life were spent in mastering my mother tongue of English, and becoming a passionate reader and explorer of words and ideas.

The second point is that effective language learning may be linked to love and respect for the people and the culture of that language. The notion that language learning can be a purely functional thing, separated from the ideas and literature

of the language group, is a misguided one, I believe. Without a desire to embrace the world of thought and culture to which language opens a door or window, the learning process is likely to be mechanistic and soulless.

Singapore may be an interesting case from this point of view. The desire to foster Asian values is laudable, and the policy of teaching moral values through the mother tongues of Chinese, Malay and Tamil makes a lot of sense. However the other side of this is a highly functional approach to the teaching of English which treats the cultural context of the language as somewhat suspect. Young people are to be protected from possible contamination by Western values.

In the Hong Kong context, I think we may have underestimated the degree of psychological alienation felt by youngsters pushed into studying hard their English lessons by parents concerned about their career opportunities, yet having little intrinsic interest in the literature or society of the coloniser. There may be interesting parallels to be explored with young French Canadians, pushing themselves to learn English for its functional value, yet feeling alienated from both English Canada and England.

My personal experience of language learning, for whatever it is worth, involved at least two important elements: an intrinsic desire to learn, rooted in respect for the culture represented by the language group and a systematic and structured set of study experiences. The opportunity for immersion in particular language communities provided considerable enhancement of fluency, but was not essential.

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Sun Zi's "The Art of War": Applications for the Classroom

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Sun Zi's two thousand year old treatise, The Art of War is the locus classicus of concentrated wisdom on the conduct of war. However, in recent times, it has become fashionable to cite Sun Zi as authority in fields like entrepreneurship and human resource management. This paper attempts to show that many of Sun Zi's doctrines are of general application and mutatis mutandis can be used to enhance the teaching skills of teachers. In education, the objective is to create in students, the ability to reason and think and not to study only what they have been taught. In the language of Sun Zi, ultimate victory occurs only when students continue to learn on their own. This article illustrates how the strategies in The Art of War can be applied in the context of modern day teaching to stimulate creative learning and foster higher order thinking skills in students.

「孫子兵法」在教學上的應用

「孫子兵法」是兩千多年前的著作其中戰爭的策略及重勝利的法則乃保存至今；而且在各領域如企業、人力等管理層廣泛應用，然而至今尚未找到有應用這些策略于教育及教學上的研究。本文嘗試補充這空隙，把孫子的戰略加以變通運用于教學上，加強教學的技巧。教育不像戰場，最終的目的是打敗敵人，教育的目的是培養學生的思考及創意能力。對教育工作者而言，最大的成功是學生能在離開校門後，繼續學習。從孫子的「百戰百勝非善者也」可以體出其含意。孫子的「五事」道、天、地、將、法」及七計」主孰其道，將孰有能，天地孰得，法令孰行，兵眾孰強，士卒孰練，賞罰孰明」可用于解釋國民教育的體系，以及研討現代教學的領域。本文說明了把孫子兵法的策略靈活的運用在教學上，將會有助于促進學生的創意與提高學生的思考能力。

1. Introduction

Sun Zi, or Sun Tzu was a brilliant military strategist who lived in China during the Spring/Autumn Period (770 - 476 BC) in China. To share the experience which he had gained from his victories, Sun Zi wrote a book detailing the strategies which he used. This book which consisted of thirteen chapters (see Appendix 1) was the classic treatise, The Art of War, now considered the oldest military manual in the world. Military readers have found Sun Zi's holistic approach to be surprisingly modern (McNeilly, 1996) and even though it was written more than 2,000 years ago, The Art of War remains the locus classicus of concentrated wisdom on the conduct of warfare.

The timelessness of The Art of War can be borne out by the fact that both Qin Shihuang and Mao Zedong used Sun Zi's strategies to defeat their enemies (Griffith, 1963); the former in 221 BC to become the first emperor of China and the latter more than two thousand years later, in 1949, to become the first Chairman of the People's Republic. Besides Qin Shihuang and Mao, other Asian leaders who have applied the principles of Sun Zi include Yamamoto in the conquest of Malaya, Giap during the battle of Dien Bien Phu and the Vietcong leaders during the Vietnam War. In the West, the writings of Sun Zi have (since being translated more than two hundred years ago by a French missionary) influenced Napoleon, the World War II German general staff as well as the Desert Storm high command (Sawyer, 1994).

Even though Sun Zi's work is concerned solely with the means by which victory could be achieved in warfare, it has become fashionable in recent times to cite Sun Zi as an authority in fields as disparate as entrepreneurship (Ng, 1993, 1996) and human resource management (Fang and Chan, 1996). Many Japanese companies make his book requisite reading for their key executives. The enlightened business approach of overseas Chinese corporate leaders has flowed from an application of Sun Zi's strategies. To these businessmen, competition in the business world has always been likened to war. In the West, the return of Hong Kong to China has triggered a resurgence of interest in all things Chinese and prompted business professionals to turn to "*The Art of War*" for inspiration and advice on how to succeed in competitive situations of all kinds (Sawyer, 1994).

Against this backdrop, a significant lacunae, to date, has been the total absence of any attempt to apply Sun Zi's strategies to education and the classroom. Prima facie, one significant difference seems to exist between warfare and the classroom which makes any application of Sun Zi's principles difficult if not impossible. In warfare, the ultimate objective is to destroy the enemy but in education, nothing is being destroyed. Instead, the objective of education is to create in students the ability to reason and think. The main focus of this article is to show how this objective can be achieved through an application of Sun Zi's principles in the classroom.

In The Art of War, Sun Zi has shown that victory can be achieved in a dynamic and fast paced environment through the effective and efficient use of scarce resources. In today's classroom, teachers not only have to keep up with changes in technology but also accomplish their teaching goals under tight financial constraints; perfect conditions for the application of Sun Zi's principles. In this regard, Sun Zi states that complete victory occurs when the enemy is subjugated without the need to engage in actual combat as the focus is on the achievement of maximum results through a minimum of risk and exposure. Educators know that they fail in their role if students study only what they are being taught. To an educator, ultimate victory occurs when students continue with learning on their own after the basics have been taught to them by their teachers. Many of Sun Zi's doctrines are of general application and can mutatis mutandis be used in the context of modern education and the classroom. To use the analogy with "warfare", victory is secured once the population, and especially the younger generation, has become knowledgeable and capable through education.

The next section explains the relevance of Sun Zi's five fundamental factors in the system of national education (the "macro" perspective). This is followed by a study of the five fundamental factors in the context of the modern day classroom (the "micro" perspective) and how the strategies in The Art of War can be implemented to stimulate creative learning and foster higher order thinking skills in students.

2. "Macro" Perspective for National Education

In his introduction to "The Art of War", Sun Zi described war in the following manner:

> *War is a vital matter of State. It is the field on which life or death is determined and the road that leads to either survival or ruin. It must be examined with the greatest of care. (Chapter 1).*

This reference to war would seem to be totally irrelevant to us as we live in prosperous times in a peaceful part of the world. However, the prosperity of a country is closely tied up with education. In his opening address at the 7th International Conference on Thinking, Mr Goh Chok Tong, the Prime Minister of Singapore, emphasised the importance of education, especially in stimulating creative learning and fostering higher order thinking skills in students. If Singaporeans are unable to develop creative minds, they will fail to live up to the challenge of ever increasing competition. Education is a vital matter of State, the way to survival or extinction. A successful education system will lead to economic prosperity and growth. Hence, education is a vital matter of State and must, in the words of Sun Zi, be examined with the greatest of care.

Indeed, Sun Zi begins The Art of War by describing how such examination is to take place. He lists the five "estimates" or fundamental factors which must be taken into account when war is being examined. These are dao ("the way"), tian ("sky"), di ("the ground"), jiang ("command") and fa ("law"). In the education context, dao would refer to the "vision and strategic intent" of the education system. Dao may

contain several dimensions, including the objectives, system, programs, mission, authorities and embodiment of the ideals. Tian, climate and di, terrain, represent the various factors in the environment which may affect education e.g. the political climate, economic conditions, human resources, cultural heritage and high technology. Jiang refers to leadership which provides vision and intent, formulates education strategy and makes strategic choices. Fa, emphasises organisational effectiveness, the chain of command and logistical support; factors which are crucial in controlling and facilitating the implementation of strategic change.

In short, the way to maintain a prosperous economy is through the development of a healthy education system which not only embodies Sun Zi's concept of dao, "the way", but which can also be moulded to the ever changing demands of the environment (tian and di). The leader (jiang) has the role of building core capabilities in order to achieve this vision, i.e. he or she must possess five qualities; wisdom, integrity, humanity, courage and discipline. These five qualities together with dao are closely co-related and consistent with the desired characteristics of a good strategic leader. In other words, a good leader in education should possess vision, be versatile, consistent, committed, well informed, able to delegate and possess authority and technological astuteness (Ng B K, 1996). The educator who possesses these five characteristics will succeed, the educator who does not will fail.

Besides the five fundamental factors, Sun Zi also states clearly that any examination of war must involve a comparison of seven elements in order to gauge the chances of success.

> *Therefore, to gauge the outcome of war we must compare the two sides by assessing their relative strengths. This is to ask the following questions:*
> *Which rules the way (dao)?*
> *Which general has greater ability?*
> *Who has gained the advantages of climate and terrain?*
> *Which army follows regulations and obeys orders more strictly?*
> *Whose forces are stronger?*
> *Whose officers and men are better trained?*
> *Whose rewards and punishments are clearer?*
> *On the basis of this comparison I know who will win and who will lose. (Sun Zi, Chapter 1)*

Using the above as a guide, a checklist can be used to compare the strengths and weaknesses of two different education systems. In the context of education, Sun Zi's seven elements would be:

1. Which education system can provide the greatest benefit to nation and country?
2. Which education system places greatest emphasis on the five core values of wisdom, integrity, humanity, courage and discipline?
3. Which education system is compatible with an environment which is complex and changing?
4. Which education system has the best structure for facilitating the implementation of change?
5. Which education system possesses best core capabilities?
6. Which system is best equipped?
7. Which education system is most effective in motivating the "employees"?

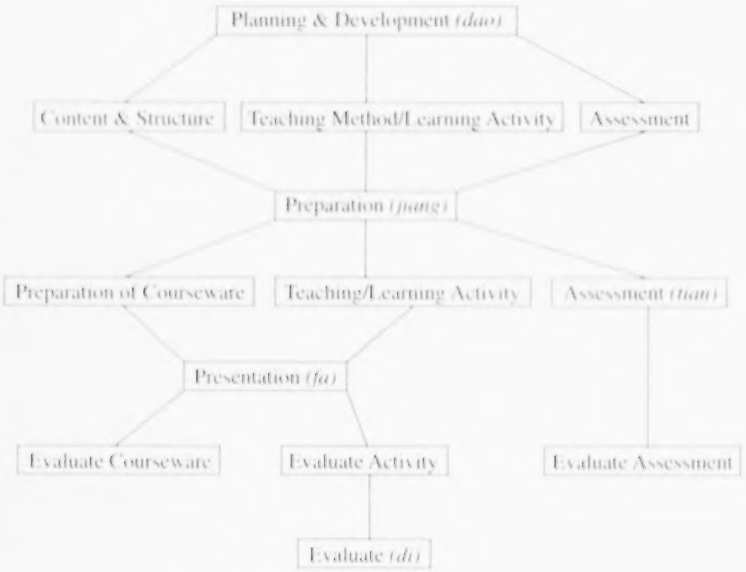
Once the assessment has been completed and the various strengths and weaknesses identified, the next step would be to make a strategic choice or select a strategy which would enable the utilisation of strengths while leaving weaknesses unexposed. Of the numerous strategies in The Art of War, many can be adapted by a healthy education system but this paper will discuss only those strategies which are applicable to the classroom.

3. "Micro" Perspective for Classroom Teaching

Sun Zi's five fundamental factors can be adapted to classroom teaching and learning activities. In the traditional classroom context, students learn by absorbing information which the teacher transfers to them at a regular pace. Today, students participate actively in the learning process. A teacher's role is to encourage and guide learning. Hence, the fostering of higher-order thinking, problem solving and flexible skills applicable to unfamiliar settings have become important goals. In order to succeed in this, a teacher must prepare strategic plans. Bill Cox (1994) has developed a schematic showing

the teaching process (see Figure 1). This can be used for the purposes of illustrating how Sun Zi's wisdom and principles can be adapted to the classroom of today.

Figure 1: The Teaching Activity (Modification of Bill Cox's Schematic diagram for Teaching Activity, 1994)



Besides showing the various processes involved in the teaching activity, Figure 1 also provides a framework with which to discuss planning, preparation, presentation, assessment and evaluation. It could be modified to apply to any teaching program, or learning activity. The following are the five main stages which correspond to Sun Zi's five factors.

Planning and development are analogous to dao; the planning of the contents of the teaching as well as hands-on activities and assessment methods to be used.

Preparation can be considered as jiang; the preparation of the teaching and learning activities, such as materials, technologies, assessment and evaluation.

Presentation is similar to fa, the method and discipline of presenting and leading the classroom which requires teaching skills, including classroom management.

Assessment is like tian, "climate", as it has to take into account the constraints of the "seasons". We plan assessments for students based on their "climates", i.e. their capabilities and academic backgrounds.

Evaluation can be treated as di; the "ground" (or terrain) can be difficult or easy; expansive or confined; fatal or tenable. The evaluation of the quality of the teaching/learning process can be based on students' feedback and appraisal or on self-evaluation together with comments from colleagues and authority. The feedback loop illustrates development of the teaching process in response to the evaluation of the performance in each phase.

4. Application of Sun Zi's Strategies to Teaching Activities

Having used the seven elements of critical assessment to assess the chances of success of a proposed teaching or learning activity, we are then able to proceed with the planning and development of a course. Sun Zi has this to say about planning:

The general who heeds my counsel is sure to win. Such a general should be retained in command. One who ignores my counsel is certain to be defeated. Such a one should be dismissed.

Having paid attention to my counsel and plans, the general must create a situation which will contribute to their accomplishment. By "situation" I mean he should take the field situation into consideration and act in accordance with what is advantageous. (Chapter 1)

4.1 Planning and Development of a teaching/ learning activity

Good planning is essential. When planning a course we need to ask:

1. What is the starting point of the activity (background of students, course prerequisites)?
2. What resources are available for this activity?
3. What are the objectives of performing this activity (content and structure)?
4. What are the essential knowledge/concepts/skills/attitudes which the activity must develop in the students?
5. What are the appropriate teaching methods/learning activities and materials to be used?
6. How will the students be assessed?
7. How will the quality of the teaching be evaluated?

These seven key questions coincide with the seven elements of critical assessment used by Sun Zi to predict the probability of success.

4.1.1 Planning content and structure

Once the objectives of the activity are clear, attention shifts to the content of the course and the topics which need to be covered. At this point, we may use some of the following strategies:

- Prioritise topics according to the "situation". Some topics will be essential because subsequent courses may require them as pre-requisites (take the field situation into consideration).
- Topics which are less important or interesting can be alternated with those which are more interesting (retain and dismiss).
- Allocate time to topics in proportion to their importance (act in accordance with what is advantageous).

4.1.2 Planning teaching methods/learning activities

Early in the planning stage thought must be given to the teaching/learning activity itself, e.g.:

- What sort of teaching methods will be used?
- What will the students be involved in?

The teaching method and the student activities used must result in the course objectives being achieved efficiently and effectively. This may mean that we cannot use the same method/activity for all our objectives. In other words, the problem here is one of constrained optimisation. Thus:

- if the resources suggest teaching/learning activities which are inappropriate for the objectives, then we must negotiate additional resources or an alternative set of objectives (retain and dismiss).
- if efficiency is an issue then use may be made of directed reading, video, or computers. Such options compromise some educational objectives and therefore require careful thought and planning (take the field situation into consideration, act in accordance with what is advantageous).

4.1.3 Planning assessment of students

Assessment tasks and procedures require planning. Even if the intention is to assess students by examination at the end of the course, the examination must still be planned in advance. Whatever assessment method is decided on, it must be a valid and reliable indication of student performance in relation to the course objectives. At an early stage, then, planing involves determining whether the chosen method of assessment will:

- match our course objectives.
- be valid, reliable and practical.
- be consistent with our stated objectives.

If students have been shown that certain topics require either superficial or detailed knowledge, then this must be reflected in the assessment. (take the field situation into consideration, act in accordance with what is advantageous).

To emphasise the importance of planning, Sun Zi states that:

> *If the estimates made before a battle indicate victory, it is because careful calculations show that your conditions are more favourable than those of your enemy; if they indicate defeat, it is because careful calculations show that favourable conditions for a battle are fewer. With more careful calculations, one can win; with less, one cannot. How much less chance of victory has one who makes no calculations at all! By this means, one can foresee the outcome of a battle. (Chapter 1)*

In short, careful planning enables us to estimate the probability of success or failure. With better planning, comes a greater chance of success; with less planning, failure is more likely. How much less a chance of success has one who does not plan at all?

4.2 Preparation

Strategies which have been used in planning can be applied analogously to preparation.

In the conduct of war, Sun Zi said:

> *A speedy victory is the main object in war. If this is long in coming, weapons are blunted and morale depressed. If troops are attacking cities, their strength will be exhausted. (Chapter 2)*

Speed here refers to efficiency and promptness, not haste in teaching. There are three major components to classroom activity - content and structure, such as lecture notes, reading materials and problem sheets which are given to the students; the teaching/learning activity which accompanies the materials and the assessment strategy. A good set of lecture handouts, a riveting lecture and an appropriate learning activity, all help to ensure that the learning objectives are achieved effectively and efficiently.

4.3 Presentation

Devising an effective means of presenting course materials to students can be difficult. Again, the analogy of war and many of Sun Zi's strategies can be used as a guide. Sun Zi said:

> *In the practical art of war, the best thing of all is to take the enemy's country whole and intact; to shatter and destroy it is not so good. So, too, it is better to capture an army entire than to destroy it, to capture a regiment, a detachment or a company entire than to destroy them.*
>
> *Hence to fight and conquer in all your battles is not supreme excellence; supreme excellence consists of breaking the enemy's resistance without fighting. (Chapter 3)*

The success of teaching lies in the ability to present ideas in such a way that students become active learners in pursuit of the intended objectives after attending lessons. It is better to motivate the students than to tell them what to do and better to lead them than to "teach" them. Hence, "chalk and talk" is not "supreme excellence", supreme excellence consists in active learning without much "teaching".

In order to promote active learning, teachers may use the following tactics:

> *The skilful leader subdues the enemy's troops without any fighting; he captures their cities without laying siege to them; he overthrows their kingdom without lengthy operations in the field.*
>
> *With his forces intact he will dispute the mastery of the Empire, and thus, without losing a man, his triumph will be complete. This is the method of attacking by stratagem. (Chapter 3)*

There are different types of students. On some tasks, some are gifted, some are average and some are dull, so the teacher must empathise, observe and cultivate each student accordingly. Hence

It is the rule in war that if our forces are ten to the enemy's one, we must surround him; if five to one, to attack him; if twice as numerous, to divide our army into two. If equally matched, we can offer battle; if slightly inferior in numbers, we can avoid the enemy; if quite unequal in every way, we can flee from him.

Hence, though an obstinate fight may be made by a small force, in the end it must be captured by the larger force. (Chapter 3)

In other words, if students possess initiative, lead them; if they are passive, motivate them; if they are average, guide them; if they are dull, teach them. We must:

Know that there are five essentials for victory.
He will win who knows when to fight and when not to fight.
He will win who knows how to handle both superior and inferior forces.
He will win whose army is animated by the same spirit throughout all its ranks.
He will win who is prepared and waits to take the enemy unprepared.
(Chapter 3)

Presently, there is much emphasis on the use of active teaching methods to stimulate student learning. In active teaching, the teacher prepares supporting teaching material and cuts down on the amount of formal teaching in order to facilitate independent student learning. Such teaching methods may be described in terms of the type of activity engaged in by the teacher and the students and the distribution of time between the two. This is equivalent to the direct and indirect methods used in Sun Zi's strategies. The direct method would refer to formal teaching and the indirect method, the other activities used in active learning. In all teaching, the direct method (formal teaching) may be used for engaging students but indirect methods will be needed in order to achieve success. Indirect tactics, efficiently applied, are recurrent, inexhaustible and unending.

To ensure that your whole host may withstand the brunt of the enemy's attack and remain unshaken — this is effected by manoeuvres direct and indirect.

In all fighting, the direct method may be used for joining battle, but indirect methods will be needed in order to secure victory.
Indirect tactics, efficiently applied, are inexhaustible as Heaven and Earth, unending as the flow of rivers and streams; like the sun and moon, they end but to begin anew; like the four seasons, they pass away to return once more.
In battle, there are not more than two methods of attack — the direct and the indirect; yet these two in combination give rise to an endless series of manoeuvres. (Chapter 5)

In short, there are only two methods – the formal and the active; yet these two in combination will be able to give rise to endless methods of teaching.

Sun Tzu also realised that:

The clever combatant looks to the effect of combined energy, and does not require too much from individuals. Hence his ability to pick out the right men and utilise combined energy. (Chapter 5)

Direct and indirect teaching strategies have a direct impact on student learning. The variety of strategies can stimulate and enhance student learning. Yet the utilisation of combined energy and co-operative learning, cannot be neglected. The use of co-operative learning has proven to be useful and has gained much popularity in recent years but Sun Zi had already foreseen it two thousand years ago.

The use of co-operative learning strategies in the classroom can make learning more varied, interesting and effective; enhance understanding through peer explanations and discussions and increase student interaction and communication; thereby achieving an improvement in student understanding. It would be as effective as:

When he utilises combined energy, his fighting men become as it were like unto rolling logs or stones. For it is the nature of a log or stone to remain motionless on level ground, and to move when on a slope; if four-cornered, to come to a standstill; but if round-shaped, to go rolling down. (Chapter 5)

4.4 Evaluation

Evaluation can be considered as di. Sun Zi's dao, "the way" can be developed by well-prepared teaching materials, jiang, which are presented by various methods of instruction, fa which are compatible with tian and di, the ever changing demands of the environment. In teaching, evaluation is based on student feedback and learning performance and provides us with a list of criteria by which we can forecast the climate, tian and the ground, di for widening "the way".

5. Conclusion

The charm of "The Art of War" lies in the fact that most of Sun Zi's strategies are based on human nature. These strategies have been widely used in a large number of business and management fields but have not been applied in the education context. This paper has attempted to fill this important gap and shows that many of the strategies can be used to enhance teaching skills and learning activities. The doctrines from The Art of War are not very difficult but it is the dynamism and essence of these guiding doctrines that one must master. A teacher who understands The Art of War will know exactly when, where, and how to vary the underlying strategies in accordance with changes in the circumstances and surrounding situations. This teacher will understand not only the importance of good planning but also that success ultimately depends on a knowledge of one's own strengths and weaknesses. There is no invariable, certain, fool-proof technology for success as a teacher.

In closing, we can do no better than to quote what is probably the best known phrase in "The Art of War":

> *If you know the enemy and yourself, you need not fear the result of a hundred battles. If you know yourself but not the enemy, for every victory gained you will also suffer a defeat. If you know neither the enemy nor yourself, you will succumb in every battle.* (Chapter 3)

So, if we know ourselves and the task at hand, we will succeed. If we know ourselves but not the objective of education, we will have less chance of success. If we know neither of these, then we would have failed completely as educators.

(* This article was developed from a paper delivered by the authors at the 7th International Conference on Thinking, Singapore, 1-6th June 1997.)

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Appendix 1: The contents of Sun Zi's "The Art of War"

Contents
Chapter 1 Initial Estimations (or Laying Plans)
Chapter 2 Waging War
Chapter 3 Planning Offensives (or Attack by Stratagem)
Chapter 4 Military Disposition (or Tactical Dispositions)
Chapter 5 Strategic Military Power (or Energy)
Chapter 6 Vacuity and Substance (or Weak Points and Strong)
Chapter 7 Military Combat (or Manoeuvring)
Chapter 8 Nine Changes (or Variation in Tactics)
Chapter 9 Manoeuvring the Army (or The army on the March)
Chapter 10 Configurations of terrain (or Terrain)
Chapter 11 Nine Terrain (or The Nine Situations)
Chapter 12 Incendiary Attacks (or The attack by Fire)
Chapter 13 Employing Spies (or The Use of Spies)

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Learning Experiences of Overseas Non-English Speaking Background Students : a case study of an Australian university

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In recent decades, there are increasing number of Asian students who choose to study abroad. This paper addresses the academic needs and learning difficulties of a group of newly arrived non-English speaking background (NESB) Asia-Pacific students who registered to study a Bachelor of Education (in-service) program in an Australia Tertiary Institution. Funded and supported by an equity grant, a learning support program was set up to allow these NESB students to share among them their experiences in academic needs and learning difficulties. The outcome revealed a need to provide mentoring assistance to the newly arrived NESB students in the areas of academic and social support in order to enable them to adapt quickly to a new and different social-educational environment.

以非英語為主道的海外學生的學術需要和學習困難

近數年來，愈來愈多亞太區的學生選擇往海外的大學就讀。本文是針對一群來自亞太區的非英語為主道背景的學生，就讀於一所澳洲大學的在職教育學術需要和學習困難。指出一個主要基於公平資助，成立了一個學習支援的計劃，提供一個機會讓這一群以非英語為主道背景的學生互相分享他們在大學裏所面對的學習困難和需要。從中已確認本大學需要提供有關的輔導支援，以幫助這些學生盡快地適應新而不同社會學習環境。

Introduction

According to the statistics of Hong Kong Education Department, the total number of students leaving Hong Kong for study in Australia has been on the upward trend. It registered a 37% increase from 3109 students in 1994 to 4200 students in 1996 (Howlett, 1997:467). With this great number of students leaving Hong Kong for Australia, a substantial proportion of them sought enrolment in the various programs offered by the Faculty of Education of the leading Australian universities. For example, Queensland University of Technology in 1996 had 31 out of a total of 168 registered NESB educational students spoke Cantonese at home (1996 QUT enrolment record). This number represented 18% of NESB educational students from one ethnic group (Cantonese) compared to an estimated total of 34 other ethnic groups. If we consider ethnic groups around the Asia-Pacific region as a whole (i.e. students speaking Mandarin, Vietnamese, Malay, Japanese, Korean, Hindi, Bangladesh, Fijian, Samoan and Tongan at home), they accounted for 36% of NESB educational students in QUT (1996 QUT enrolment record).

Being fairly new to Australia, these NESB students have to cope with the unfamiliar cultural educational environment. As a result, they experience a number of adjustment problems when they embark on an educational program. These newly arrived NESB students, mainly of Asian origin, speak English as their second or even third language at home. The language difficulties, to some extent, limit their ability to participate fully and actively in lectures and tutorial discussions.

Some earlier research has indicated that students from different cultural and educational background possess markedly different learning styles. For instance, East Asian students are used to a passive learning style whereby textbooks and lecture notes are rote learned without many questions being raised. They regard the lecturers as experts in the various disciplines and who have the authority to always provide 'correct' answers. Hence to ask questions in class indicates a challenge to the lecturer's expertise and shows one's own

incompetence in understanding (Ballard and Clanchy, 1991; Marton et al., 1993; Tan, 1993). However, Australian academics often expect students to be able to demonstrate that they can learn through independent self-directed study and justify their own opinions and standpoints critically by comparison of alternatives (Kwan & Tang, 1997).

Kaplan (1961) stresses a culturally different style of discourse. Asian students tend to study phenomena from a holistic perspective and use a loose circular argument rather than a connected linear argument to synthesize textual information (Adair, 1985; Kui, 1991). On the other hand, Australian academics expect writing to be clearly focused on the set topic and that students are to present a reasoned analytical argument, which based strongly on wide extensive and critical readings. They have to present such argument clearly to other peer members in a competent and coherent manner (Clanchy and Ballard, 1981).

However, the difficulties faced by NESB students are not always readily noted and addressed by the teaching staff of the Australian universities. Being shy and hesitant to raise their difficulties to the attention of the lecturers, the NESB students are often left by themselves to struggle just to meet the minimum expectations of the unit and the basic requirements of the program (Kwan & Tang, 1997).

With this background scenario, a "New Arrivals" project was conducted in Semester 1, 1997 with the support of an Equity Grant from the Faculty of Education at Queensland University of Technology. This paper reports the findings of this project with the aim to achieve the following objectives:

- provide learning support to a group of NESB students of East Asia and Pacific origins;
- find out the academic needs and learning difficulties experienced by these students;
- identify strategies to help the NESB students enjoy their studies and learn effectively in a new and different social-educational setting; and
- provide recommendations and suggestions to other Australian university to help meeting the academic needs of the NESB students.

The "New Arrivals" Project

The target students participated in this project were a group of newly arrived NESB students of Asia-Pacific origin who enrolled to do the 1-year B.Ed. (in-service) program. This group of students was selected because of the relatively short duration (2x14 semester weeks of teaching) of the academic program. These NESB students, coming from a different cultural setting, did not really have time to adapt quickly to the new learning style and educational expectations in Australia. Hence, it is envisaged that this group of NESB students would face many more challenges and need extra support from the faculty almost right at the beginning of their educational program.

Of the sixteen students identified and contacted, eleven of them accepted the invitation to participate in the project. Among them, six were from Hong Kong, one from Japan, one from Taiwan, one from Fiji and two from Philippines. This project had two components:

- providing learning support through a support program; and
- collecting data on the learning experiences of these newly arrived NESB Asia-Pacific students.

Learning Support Program

The learning support program was co-ordinated by a project officer who was also of Asian origin. After soliciting expectations from the eleven participants, a series of workshops were organized in the first term of the semester to meet their learning difficulties and academic needs that they encountered at the beginning of their studies. The foci of the workshops were on:

- increasing self-awareness of their own learning styles;
- understanding the complexity of the thinking, transcribing and monitoring processes in academic writing; and
- using the on-line catalogue, CD-ROM and other facilities in the library.

When these NESB students began to settle down and found themselves more preoccupied by assignments, presentations and seminars, the learning support of the "New Arrivals" project switched its focus to the provision of individual consultations. The scope of this individual consultations includes areas such as literature search,

understanding assignment requirements, structuring and polishing essays, seeking part-time employment, locating further information on higher degree studies and other assistance such as group socialization.

During this stage of individual consultations, the project officer still maintained telephone contact with the participating members to keep track of their adaptation to the new learning environment and to provide appropriate assistance or referral whenever it is needed.

Data Collection

The second component of the "New Arrivals" project aimed at capturing the learning experiences encountered by these NESB students. They were invited to participate voluntarily in two in-depth reflective interviews to talk aloud their experiences encountered so far in meeting their learning needs and their difficulties in handling lectures, tutorials and assignments. The first reflective interview took place during weeks 4 and 5 of the semester. The second reflective interview took place at the end of the first semester. The purpose was to reveal if there was any qualitative change in their learning behaviours, which were related to their learning needs and difficulties as expressed in their first interview. Subject to their own choice and preference, the reflective interviews were held either individually or with groups of three or four students.

Results And Discussion

The Learning Needs and Difficulties Experienced by NESB Students at the Beginning of the Semester

Five themes were revealed from the first round of reflective interviews, which looked at NESB students' perceptions of their needs and learning difficulties experienced at the beginning of the semester.

1) Lacking knowledge of local education system and educational issues

Since most newly arrived NESB students have little knowledge of the local educational contexts and the contemporary educational issues in Queensland, they found it difficult to follow the lectures and not to mention to engage fruitfully in discussions, tutorials or seminars that required them a lot of such background knowledge. The situation was made worse if their lecturers assumed all students have already possessed this knowledge.

> *"(Some) units are of immense pains, because we don't know the Australian educational situations. In class, the lecturers assume we are Australians and so they go very fast, thinking we know everything already. So, it's hard for us to pick up." (AL, Hong Kong).*

> *"Background knowledge of the Australian education environment, it's new, and it's difficult for me to relate to it." (SS, Fiji).*

2) Difficult to follow lectures

In some units, if the lecturers did not use visual aids in class, this would make it more difficult for the NESB students who are visual learners to follow. This problem was compounded further by their lack of familiarity with the Australian accents and spoken languages.

> *"Maybe we know the words, but it's the way they are said. ... When I see the words (on the transparency), then oh! I know the meaning." (SS, Fiji).*

> *"He (the lecturer) seems to have enjoyed his lectures a lot. But for us it's different. We have to translate the language before we can understand and catch up with the lectures." (SY, Hong Kong).*

3) Cross-cultural barrier to communication

Although all of the NESB students admitted that their lecturers had encouraged them to speak up, and "hassle" (SS, Fiji) them, they expressed a reluctance to ask questions or seek assistance from their lecturers. The reason for this reluctance to communicate was partly ***cultural. "It's our culture that we are (stay) away from the lecturers." (SS, Fiji).***

The Filipino student gave a very vivid and sophisticated description.

> *"It is not in our culture to keep on asking ... and get close to the teacher. Because in our culture, if you keep talking with the teacher, it seems you want to be close to him, just want grades. (Project Officer: Favouritism") Yea, favouritism. ... Another thing is when you keep on asking the teacher that means you don't understand, that you're dumb, you know, ... that's why I said to myself: I mustn't ask that simple question. ... I know we need to ask because we are studying here, but it takes a long time to adjust." (LN, Philippines).*

It was also partly due to their ***non-critical learning style.***

> *"We're used to not asking any question in our home country. ... It's acceptable if we copied (verbatim) from texts into our assignments." (KA, Japan).*

All these expressions of worry agree to a large extent with what were noted by Ballard and Clanchy (1991), Marton et al., (1993) and Tan (1993) that Asian students do not have the cultural confidence to 'challenge' their teachers to imply their incompetence in understanding.

4) Feeling of isolation and not participating in tutorials

As a result of their lacking local knowledge, inadequate English language proficiency, and their cultural submissiveness, these NESB students had little involvement in class and they felt isolated by their fellow Australian classmates.

> *"I also found it quite lonely in tutorial because I am the only black there, and felt segregated ... I thought there's a cultural difference. In Fiji, students are very close, sort of like neighbours. But here, it's more individualistic." (SS, Fiji).*

> *"... We felt insecure. We felt out of place. That's why when the lecturer asked us to share ideas, we felt ashamed. We couldn't talk because we don't know the people there. It's good if we know each other." (LN, Philippines).*

> *"... Not knowing their system, their changes. The whole semester, we sat there as if we were idiots. In tutorial, we were invisible." (AL, Hong Kong).*

> *"During discussion, you just sat there, getting lost. You couldn't follow their conversation. Sitting there, it's as if you're not attending the lecture. ... And what is worse, in the end, some students complained about the overseas students, that we're not participating in the discussion." (TT, Hong Kong).*

This ill feeling has led to the formation of a vicious circle - the more these students have this feeling of isolation, the more reluctant they are to open themselves up and to participate. To speak up and to share experiences in class, which is vital to the success of experiential learning especially in the Western education world, is simply too risky for them to bear because they feel insecure, are afraid of mistakes and are being ridiculed.

When these students could no longer trust their own personal authentic experiences, they would find it extremely difficult to relate themselves to the educational concepts and theories presented by their lecturers, not to mention the discussions and debates which went on all the time in the classroom. The result is their further avoidance of participation, and using superficial, surface learning strategies to cope with the stressful learning situation.

5) Use of Surface Learning Strategies

As mentioned above, many NESB students failed to relate new knowledge to what they have already known, they inclined to use surface learning strategies (Biggs & Moore 1992; Ramsden 1992; Marton, Dall'Alba & Beaty, 1993). When it came to learning activities, such as writing and presenting a reflective journal, which aimed at high level reflective thinking and linkage of experiences to theories, these students resorted to tactics of avoidance approach. The following episode illustrates the use of counter-productive learning strategies by some of the NESB students.

In one unit, the lecturer asked her students to write a reflective journal based on material presented in a previous lesson. Students were to take turn to present it to the tutorial class in groups of three. Not being able to comprehend most of the lessons due to a combination of the reasons suggested above, three Hong Kong students who were in the same

tutorial group chose to avoid doing it. They understood that such presentation should be seen as a valuable learning experience, an opportunity for them to rattle ideas and clarify understanding. However, they just did not have the courage to face it.

> *"There are three volunteers to present in each lecture, and we just keep avoiding, hoping that we don't have to do any presentation at all until the end of the semester."* (TT, Hong Kong).

Another remark made by a Japanese student sums up clearly this reproductive, uncritical approach to learning:

> *"I am not used to thinking for myself. In Japan, we didn't have to think. It's all right to copy from text (into the assignment). So when the lecturer asked me to think for myself, I didn't know how to."* (KN, Japan).

The use of surface learning strategy is far from isolated phenomenon, but is commonly employed by many NESB students. As a result, they resorted to doing the minimum just to get over the assessment requirement.

> *"We concentrate only on the simple assignment topic, tackling it together ... To study here to get a pass is no more than handing in the assignments."* (SH, Hong Kong).

The Learning Needs and Difficulties Experienced by NESB Students at the End of the Semester

After one whole semester of studying, many of these NESB students still found the above problems persisted though with some slight improvements. They were still not too clear about local educational system but they admitted that the situation has improved a bit because they had done some research on this topic in the library. They still felt isolated and very much reluctant to "hassle" the lecturers but agreed that if they did hassle the lecturers, they usually got good support and advice from them.

Some of them still indicated that they preferred their learning to be more teacher-controlled (Ames and Ames, 1984). The irony is that they appreciated the usefulness of self-initiated and interactive learning. However, due to their cultural baggage, they were still very reluctant to participate actively in the lectures and tutorials. LN was a typical student to show such a big contradiction in enjoying a class, which stressed interactive learning. Nevertheless, she lacked confidence to speak up in other lectures.

> *"It's also your self-esteem. You don't have confidence. Your self (esteem) is very bad. Lacking of encouragement for us to speak, share ideas, ... because most of us are very ashamed, thinking that maybe I'm not good enough to share my ideas, maybe to speak English, they will laugh at me. That was what I think."* (LN, Philippines)

> *"The active participation is a good learning style, but it's not much useful to us. The lecturer did not encourage students from other backgrounds to say their ideas. They just ask the whole class questions. They didn't pinpoint. They should do it one by one. We would be encouraged, forced to say what we're thinking, we (then) could really share it."* (LN, Philippines)

However, in another episode shared by the same three Hong Kong students, showed how easily they could become exhilarated when they were given the opportunity to speak up and share their own experiences with the other classmates.

> *"In one lecture, ... suddenly she (the lecturer) asked us what the situation is like in Hong Kong. So I told them and the atmosphere became very different. We are in a sharing mode. There is interflow. It is not boring, not just we listening, but we were talking to them."* (SH, Hong Kong).

TT, SH's classmate in the same tutorial, added:

> *"That occasion, I was too happy to describe in words. It is the first time I spoke so much in the tutorial. But that depends on the topic. If I knew nothing about it,*

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then I said to myself, oh, don't ask me or force me to speak. It must be a topic that we can share. There must be exchange of ideas." (TT, Hong Kong).

They have also revealed continuing difficulties with the four English macro-skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing throughout the semester. In terms of speaking, they had to spend three to four times longer than the Australian students to prepare for oral presentations or seminars. They often wrote down the full script of presentation and spent long time to rehearse the script mainly by recitation. They were also sensitive to their accents, which may cause communication breakdown and embarrassment.

In terms of listening, they still found many lecturers spoke very fast making comprehension and note-taking extremely difficult. The situation got worse if the lecturer spoke with heavy Australian accent and used a lot of colloquial in the expression.

With regard to reading, they found it difficult to cope with the vast amount of articles that they had to read for each lecture and assignment. Eventually, they could only "surface" read for assignments and seminars. Often, they could not afford to spend time to pre-read for the lectures. Even if they could, they spent long time to look up new word and terminology from a bi-lingual dictionary, which constantly broke their line of thinking and hence caused disturbance in understanding the text.

In terms of writing, they found using appropriate genre and terminology difficult. Often, they felt the lecturers' expectation on them to write perfect Australian English. As a result, they had to draft assignments many times to polish their written language expression before they were ready for submission.

Students' Evaluation of The Learning Support Program

The Learning Support Program has been perceived as useful by the NESB students in three aspects:

1) Emotional support and peer network

During the first few workshop meetings, the NESB students treasured the opportunity to meet and share experiences with other students of similar backgrounds (e.g., NESB and new to Australia). They realized that other people also had similar problems to their own. Hence, they did not feel as bad and lonely as when they first arrived to Australia.

"This program is good because you talk to other students, different backgrounds. You talk to them about your problems. Maybe they can help you." (LN, Philippines).

"The first meeting was useful. You get to know other NESB students, and to share your worries. I feel more comfortable when I know other people have similar problems. I am not the only one." (SS, Fiji).

Moreover, when they knew each other, they could offer support to each other.

Project Officer: Did you get something out from this program?

"Well, contact, you have lots of contact with people." (LN, Philippines).

"What this program did for me is that it ... gave me the opportunity to make friends with and learn from other sisters. ... I felt being taken care of. ... I could take the initiative to approach you (the Project Officer). Without this program, I wouldn't have known who to contact, fearing that I might cause others too much trouble." (SY, Hong Kong).

2) Academic Support

Due to their non-English speaking background, many of these students experienced great difficulty in academic writing. At the beginning of the semester, a workshop on thinking and writing was specifically organized. The workshop was to help them to be more aware of the complex thinking and transcribing processes involved in academic writing. They also learned some general strategies to make academic writing more enjoyable.

In the second term of the semester, the writing support took the form of individual consultations, helping them re-organise and clarify the ideas expressed in their essays. This assistance was greatly appreciated:

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"This program, for me, has been very very useful, largely because I took the initiative to seek help from you (the project officer). ... My grammar, ... my organisation was very poor, ... I now know where my weaknesses are." (SS, Hong Kong)

"It (the workshop) is good for the first-timers in the university. ... The big thing is the assignment. I think we all need that help." (LN, Philippines)

"The writing workshop is very important and useful if you can teach them how to write at the beginning. Like us who came out from the college of education, we really didn't know how to write an academic essay." (TT, Hong Kong).

Through referral, a number of NESB students sought assistance from the Learning House of the University to help with reading their assignments. One student found it very helpful because she now understood why the way she wrote was considered inappropriate:

"Mr Xxxxx, the learning advisor, explained to me: This is the topic sentence, and so should be here, ... and these points should be re-organised ... Looking back, I learnt a lot from him." (AL, Hong Kong).

3) Use of Computer Facilities

We have long entered the high technology era. It becomes a necessity for all students to acquire a certain degree of familiarity in using such information technology in the study of the university programs. However, the needs in this area varied between individuals because of their very different computer background knowledge. The NESB students were given two workshops, organized by the project officer, on how to use the electronic resources in the library to search catalogues on web and use CD-ROM to locate reference materials. In general, they had picked up some basic but essential computer skills that they were not aware of before. Their confidence in using the library effectively to locate resources to complete their assignments has also increased. In fact, some students wished this program could extend to provide them assistance on learning how to surf the Internet and how to send email. At the time of doing the reflective interviews, they had not yet fully acquired such confidence and knowledge.

"The library sessions, using the library catalogue, CD-ROM, and microfiche were useful. ... But I still don't know how to use other computer facilities - the Internet, email. I wish to learn how to use them." (SS, Fiji).

Recommendations and Conclusion

The findings of this Project can hardly be regarded as surprising. Yet it has collected strong evidence to show the existence of academic, social and cultural learning problems faced by the Asia-Pacific NESB students. Such evidence is perhaps useful as well to be considered by other Australian universities who also take in many international NESB students from the Asia-Pacific region in the recent years. From both the educational and equity points of view, there is a need to raise the cultural sensitivity and understanding of the teaching staff to make NESB students feel at home when studying overseas. The Learning Support Program had successfully fulfilled its academic and social functions. In one form or another, similar service of this kind should be made available to as many NESB students as possible. It is, therefore, recommended that to become a truly international university, mentoring support should be regularly and systematically resourced and provided to the newly arrived NESB students in the following areas:

- strengthening of the English language in oral communications;
- development of academic writing skills; and
- adapting their beliefs about and opening their attitudes towards learning in a new social-educational environment.

To achieve that, it would seem appropriate to employ persons from similar cultural background to play the mentoring role to ensure the NESB students feel more comfortable to speak to and seek help from them. Alternatively, these mentors could be academic staff members recommended by each department who demonstrate a kind of cultural sensitivity to the academic and social needs of the NESB students.

With regard to the language barrier, NESB students are strongly advised to attend workshops on language and learning

skills to help themselves better understand the language expectations at the tertiary level in an overseas environment.

Lastly, the university should provide support and facility to encourage peer support among NESB students from similar cultural background so that they do not feel that lonely and isolated during their course of study.

In this global world stressing understanding and acceptance of different cultures, it is of critical importance for the NESB students to open up themselves and take the initiative to immerse themselves to a new culture. It is also essential for the tertiary institutions to appreciate the difficult adjustment made by the NESB students in a very different cultural and academic environment.

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A Developmental Profile of New Horizons in Education

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Five hundred and ninety-eight articles published in New Horizons in Education over a thirty-seven year period from 1961 to 1997 have been indexed according to authorship and classified with reference to a group of subject descriptors or keywords. An examination of the two indexes and the relevant articles revealed the following developmental profile: an increasing number of authorship in journal articles, expanding scope of educational research, improving teaching practice attempts, emphasis on curriculum and instruction, enhancement of teaching Chinese, English and language, seeking educational administration efficacy, emerging special education, better educational assessment, and developing cross-regional education.

「教育曙光」學報中論文的綜合分析

在一九六一年一九九七的卅七年間，本刊共登出六百九十八篇文章，本文將這些文章按主題及作者編製為兩個索引，並將這兩個索引及有關的文章，發現下列特色：每篇文章的作者數目有增加的趨勢，教育研究的範疇擴闊，改良教學實務工作的嘗試，教學實務工作改進，課程及教學被受重視，提倡中英語文教學，追求高效能的教育行政，成長中的特殊教育，較佳的教學測量以及合發展的地區性的教育計劃。

Introduction

New Horizons in Education is an official annual publication of the Hong Kong Teachers' Association. Over a thirty-seven-year period from 1961 to 1997, *New Horizons in Education* has published 598 articles concerning various aspects of education. With the production of two volumes in 1961, a total of thirty-eight volumes have been published thus far. Of the 598 articles already published, 348 are written in English (58.19%) and 250 in Chinese (41.81%). Although, the majority of the articles are written by one author, there is a slight increase in the number of articles with multiple authors starting in the 1980s, as more articles with two or more authors were published (see Table 1). This trend is also in accord with the international sector, particularly in the field of science (Bayer & Smart, 1991). As educational development becomes more important, international collaborations will become more prevalent in order to optimize cross-cultural understanding for improving the quality of education.

Table 1: *New Horizons in Education*: Publication Date, Volume Number, Number of Articles, and Number of Authors

Publication Date	Volume Number	Number of Articles[1]		Number of Authors	Authorship					
		Chinese	English		0[2]	1	2	3	4	5
May 1961	1	3	8	10	1	10				
Oct 1961	2	0	1	1		1				
Jun 1962	3	4	3	8		7[3]				
Jul 1963	4	3	4	7		7				
Jun 1964	5	4	3	9		6		1		
Aug 1965	6	5	4	9		9				
Aug 1966	7	6	3	8	1	8				
Aug 1967	8	7	4	10	1	10				
Sept 1968	9	7	5	12		12				
Sep 1969	10	5	7	12		12				
Sep 1970	11	6	5	11		11[4]				
Sep 1971	12	11	5	16		16				
Sep 1972	13	7	2	9		9				
Nov 1973	14	5	6	11		11				
Oct 1974	15	6	10	16		16				
Nov 1975	16	5	10	16		14[5]	1			
Nov 1976	17	7	14	21		20	1			
Nov 1977	18	6	15	21		19	2			
Nov 1978	19	7	14	21		21[6]				
Nov 1979	20	7	18	25		24	1			
Nov 1980	21	12	14	28		24	2			
Nov 1981	22	10	11	23		20		1		
Nov 1982	23	9	13	24		21		1		
Nov 1983	24	8	20	33		23	5			
Nov 1984	25	7	17	30		20	3	1		
Nov 1985	26	10	9	24		16	2		1	
Nov 1986	27	10	8	22		16		2		
Nov 1987	28	7	11	18		18				
Nov 1988	29	10	9	21		18		1		
Oct 1989	30	7	11	21		16	1	1		
Nov 1990	31	8	8	17		15	1			
Nov 1991	32	5	15	28		15	3	1	1	
Nov 1992	33	6	12	27		11	5	2		
Nov 1993	34	6	13	24		14	5			
Nov 1994	35	7	9	20		14	1		1	
Nov 1995	36	5	10	22		11	3			1
Nov 1996	37	5	11	25		10	3	3		
Nov 1997	38	7	6	24		8	2	1	2	
Total		250	348							

[1] The following categories of entries have not been included in the construction of profile: Speech (57), business report of the Hong Kong Teachers' Association (HKTA) (33), conference report (11), book review (8), editorial (6), antithetical couplet (3), record of government department (1), memorial speech (1), personal reflection (1) and poem (1).

[2] No authors indicated.

[3] 2 translated articles included, each consisted of 1 translator.

[4] 1 translated article included, consisted of 1 translator.

[5] 1 translated article included, consisted of 1 translator.

[6] 1 recorded article included, consisted of 1 notetaker.

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Categorization of Articles

New Horizons in Education is a journal with a majority of articles dedicated to subjects such as curriculum, mathematics, science education, physical education, languages, and teacher education. Of all these articles, the most often discussed topics include: particular areas of education, specific subjects such as biology, mathematics, and physics, language education, curriculum development and medium of instruction, educational psychology, teaching, educational issues, assessment, educational administration, special education for handicapped and minorities, and education across regions.

Table 2: New Horizons in Education: Categorization and Related Frequency Count of Articles

Topic	Total		Chinese		English	
	Number of Articles	%	Number of Articles	%	Number of Articles	%
1 General and Subject-based education	249	41.64	122	20.4	127	21.23
1a General areas of education	77	12.88	35	5.85	42	7.02
1b Subject-based education	172	28.76	87	14.55	85	14.21
2 Chinese/ English/ Language education	155	25.92	64	10.70	91	15.22
3 Educational psychology	111	19.23	23	3.85	88	14.72
4 Teaching/ Teacher education	91	15.22	43	7.19	48	8.03
5 Curriculum/ Medium of instruction	66	11.04	7	1.17	59	9.87
6 Educational Issues/ Themes	63	10.54	23	3.85	40	6.69
7 Assessment/ Assessment methods	54	9.03	13	2.17	41	6.68
8 Educational administration	49	8.19	29	4.85	20	3.34
9 Special education	14	2.34	9	1.51	5	0.84
10 Cross-regional	29	4.85	6	1.00	23	3.85

In *New Horizons in Education*, there are 77 (12.88%) articles based on particular areas of education. Areas covered include: bilingual education, elementary education, gifted education, higher education, moral education, open education, secondary education, special education, teacher education, and technical education. More specifically, there are 172 (28.76%) subject-based education articles covering a wide range of topics. The subjects covered include: arts, biology, career, Chinese history, civics, computers, the environment, geography, language, leisure education, mathematics, music, physical education, physics, religious knowledge, science education, sex education, social science and technology. The above subjects have a dual role in this paper in that they are used as both the names of subjects and descriptors. Articles found under these descriptors primarily discuss extensively the subject in which the article is found. A total of 249 (41.64%) articles have been included in the topic of coverage entitled "General and Subject-based education".

Other than the subject-based articles, the second topic of coverage concerns Chinese, English and language education, with 155 (25.92%) articles focusing on Chinese, English or language education. Articles concerning Chinese discuss primarily comprehension of reading and writing in Chinese. Articles addressing English discuss a wide scope of ideas ranging from improving students' oral English and listening and reading comprehension to articles concerning the English language training center. The articles found to be relevant to language education include discussing possibilities for improving students' conversation, bilingual education, effect of attitudes towards language on both teaching and learning, and the language policy in Hong Kong. As for the articles addressing Chinese, English and language education, they can be found under descriptors "Chinese", "English" and "Language Education". Also considered a part of language education, are the articles found under the descriptors "Bilingual Education", "Comprehension", "Reading",

"Speaking", and "Writing". In the Chinese subject index, the descriptors "Chinese Language", "Chinese Literature", "Chinese Writing," "Dialect", "Extracurricular Reading", "Poem", and "Medium of Instruction" also contain articles relevant to Chinese, English and language education.

In addition to all the subject-based articles and those concerning English and language education, the third major topic covered is educational psychology, with a total of 111 articles (19.23%). Other than the four articles found under the descriptor "Educational Psychology", in the Chinese subject index, the other 107 articles relevant to educational psychology can be divided into four subcategories. The first, which is the largest, subcategory with 57 entries (8.86%) deals with cognition and includes all the articles found under the descriptors "Academic Achievement", "Intelligence", "Learning", "Models of Learning and Teaching", "Problem-Solving", and "Psychology". The descriptor "Student Quality" and "Mental Health" in the Chinese subject index contains additional articles belonging to the Cognition subcategory. The second largest subcategory (24 entries, 4.01%) for educational psychology is Emotion. This category includes all articles found under "Anxiety", "Attitudes", "Personality", "Self-Concept", and "Sex Differences". More Chinese articles can also be found under the descriptor "Emotional Health" in the Chinese subject index. The third subcategory, entitled Family, contains 19 articles (3.18%) from the descriptors "Heredity," "Human Development", "Parent-Child Interaction". The two descriptors "Family" and "Relationship" in the Chinese subject index also contain articles relevant to the Family subcategory. The last subcategory is Social. This category has 10 articles (1.67%) found under the descriptors "Behavior", "Leadership", and "Stereotyping". In addition to these descriptors, articles belonging to the Social subcategory can also be found under the keyword "Student Life" in the Chinese subject index.

The fourth topic covered is teaching, with a total of 91 articles (15.22%). Articles of this nature differ from that of medium of instruction in that articles concerning teaching are more general in that they do not necessarily discuss a specific subject, but are more about teaching and the teaching profession. Also distinguishing "Teaching" from "Medium of Instruction" is that there are articles discussing specific practices and teaching resources used in classrooms such as using computer simulation programs or other resources like using an English newspaper in an English class. All articles relevant to teaching can be found under the descriptor "Teaching" and additionally under "Student Advising", "Teaching Method", "Teaching Objectives", and "Teaching Skills" in the Chinese subject index. As for those articles addressing teacher education (14 entries, 2.34%), classified under the descriptor "Teacher Education", they discuss the training and preparation of teachers with many of the articles offering suggestions for improving the training of teachers, therefore improving the quality of teaching. While curriculum, medium of instruction, and teaching are the topics most frequently discussed, other descriptors such as "Anxiety" (1 entry, 0.17%), "Geography Education" (3 entries, 0.50%), and "Leadership" (1 entry, 0.17%) yielded far less relevant articles, with no more than three entries in any one of them.

Curriculum and medium of instruction represent the fifth area of discussion, with 66 articles (11.04%) focusing on curriculum and medium of instruction. The majority of the articles relevant to curriculum discuss the design and the efficiency in which the curriculum of a specific subject is implemented. Articles pertinent to medium of instruction offer suggestions for teachers to be able to teach more productively a particular subject. Articles addressing curriculum and medium of instruction can be found under the descriptors "Curriculum" and "Medium of Instruction". Additional Chinese articles can be found under the descriptor "Extra-curricular Activities".

The sixth topic of coverage concerns education and educational issues in general are represented with a total of 63 (10.54%) articles. Articles addressing education discuss issues such as what motivates teachers, problems in education both regionally and internationally, the educational value of travel, and the part an education department of a university plays in a developing country. These articles can be found under either "Educational Issues" or "Themes in Education". The primary difference between the articles found in the two descriptors is that those in "Educational Issues" address issues regarding current ideas or problems, while articles in "Themes in Education" discuss issues prevalent for a longer time period. In the Chinese subject index, the descriptors "Educational Aims", "Educational Evaluation", "Educational Ideals", "Educational Problems", and "Educational Thought" contain additional articles concerning education and educational issues in general.

Assessment and assessment methods are the seventh topic of concern in *New Horizons in Education*. Articles

addressing these issues discuss new possibilities for grading systems and scoring, providing suggestions for more appropriate and accurate assessment strategies in evaluating students' performance. Considered relevant to assessment are the articles found in the descriptors "Research", "Research Reports", and "Testing". The articles found under "Research" and "Research Reports" discuss various issues as a result of research. For example, an article in "Research" offers suggestions for teaching reading better after learning of recent research. Articles found under the descriptor "Research" also discuss the role of research in education today. Some articles found under "Testing" propose different testing strategies while others discuss different types of testing in general, like criterion referenced testing or educational and psychological testing. Articles concerning assessment can be found under the descriptors "Educational Measurement", "Research", "Research Reports", and "Testing", with a total number of 54 articles (9.03%).

The eighth major topic covers educational administration. Included as relevant with educational administration are the articles found under the descriptor "Policy". Articles pertinent to educational administration address the efficiency in which education is managed and how effectively some educational policies are implemented. Some of the articles also offer suggestions for policy changes in education. All 49 articles (8.19%) concerning educational administration can be found in the descriptors "Educational Administration", and "Policy" and in the Chinese subject index, under the descriptors "Compulsory Education" and "Educational Reform".

The ninth topic addresses special education (14 entries, 2.34%) for the handicapped and minorities. Articles relevant to special education discuss and propose special programs for disadvantaged children to learn as efficiently as possible. All articles regarding special education can be found under the descriptors "Special Education", "Handicapped", and "Minorities".

An apparent trend in *New Horizons in Education*, starting with volume 16 in 1975, is the discussion of issues that could help to understand the status of education in Hong Kong and abroad. Through the years, New Horizons in Education has published a number of articles (29 articles, 4.85%) concerning various aspects of education in countries both regionally and internationally like Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, Korea, Macau, Scotland, and the United States. These articles with an international perspective on education represent the tenth major topic covered and can be found under the descriptor "Cross-Cultural" and "Country" in the Chinese subject index under "Comparison" and "Culture".

Indexing

A Cumulative Index was constructed in order to classify the articles published in *New Horizons in Education*. Similar indexing has been conducted in a number of educational journals in Hong Kong (e.g. Wu & Chan, 1996; Wu & Tse, 1998). The Cumulative Index of the *New Horizons in Education* contains all 598 articles published in 38 volumes beginning with the first and second volumes in 1961 and ending with the thirty-eighth in 1997. It is important to note that the following categories of entries have not been included in the construction of the profile: speech, business report of Hong Kong Teachers' Association, conference report, book review, editorial, antithetical couplet, diary, record of a government department, memorial speech, personal reflection and poem. The Cumulative Index consists of two sections: The Subject Index and the Author Index. Each of these indexes has been divided into two sections, of which one is written in English and the other in Chinese. All four subsections have been cross-referenced to each other. All English entries are arranged in strict alphabetical order, while all Chinese entries are classified according to the number of strokes.

In the Subject Index, all journal articles have been organized according to a group of subject descriptors, which are arranged in alphabetical order. Under each descriptor, a list of the titles of articles relevant to that particular keyword from *New Horizons in Education* is provided. Following each title is the volume number in which the article can be found and the beginning and ending page numbers of the article. The number of references cited in the article is indicated in parentheses. For instance, in the example below, there are five articles from *New Horizons in Education* relevant to the descriptor "Behavior". The first article listed can be found in volume 31, beginning at page 83 and ending at 90 with 11 references indicated in parentheses. The same organization applies to all the entries.

Behavior

Aggressive Behaviour in Young Pupils: An Intervention Package 31: 83-90 (11)

Behavioural Measurement and Unruly Behaviour in Hong Kong Schools 30: 108-115 (11)

Do Schools Make a Difference to Adolescent Conduct Problems and Delinquency? 24: 158-166 (11)

The Ethnographic Approach to Studying Schools and Classrooms 28: 49-60 (26)

Sex Differences in Problem Behaviour and the Self-Concept: An Investigation of Hong Kong Junior Secondary School Students 37: 11-19 (26)

The *Author Index* is arranged by the last name of the author and is followed by the title of the article. At the end of the title, each entry includes the volume number of the Journal in which the article is published and the beginning and ending page numbers of the article. Below is an illustration of an *Author Index* entry.

ANDERSON, JONATHAN

Children's Attitudes towards Learning with Computers 25: 114-123

Summary

A Cumulative Index was constructed for the purpose of categorizing and analyzing 598 articles published in New Horizons in Education. A majority of the articles are dedicated to subjects such as curriculum, mathematics, science education, physical education, languages, and teacher education. All 598 articles can be classified under ten topics which include: (1) particular areas of education and subject based discussion such as biology, mathematics, and physics, (2) language education, (3) educational psychology, (4) teaching and teacher education, (5) curriculum development and medium of instruction, (6) educational themes and issues, (7) assessment, (8) educational administration, (9) special education for handicapped and minorities, and (10) education across regions. A further examination of the two Cumulative Indexes and the relevant articles revealed the following developmental profile: an increasing authorship in journal articles, expanding scope of educational research, improving teaching practice attempts, emphasis on curriculum and instruction, enhancement of teaching Chinese, English and language, seeking educational administration efficacy, emerging special education, better educational assessment, and developing cross-regional education.

Final Remarks

The present study represents a preliminary exploration of the research and discussion imbedded in the past thirty eight issues of New Horizons in Education. We understand that the subject index developed as the classification tool for the exploration is neither comprehensive and exhaustive in nature but is created for illustrative and review purposes such that additional research can be built on it. We hope that the developmental profile and the Cumulative Index can make a valuable contribution to both researchers and practitioners in education. We take full responsibility for any errors or omissions.

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New Horizons in Education
Subject Index

Subject	Title	Vol.: Pages (Ref.)
Academic Achievement		
	Academic Achievement, Medium of Instruction and Teacher Characteristics	32: 18-26 (31)
	Anxiety and Academic Achievement	20: 142-153 (23)
	Certain Factors Affecting Academic Success of Secondary Students in Hong Kong	21: 65-79 (6)
	Factors Influencing the Achievement of Teaching Objectives Among Primary and Secondary School Physical Educators in Hong Kong	34: 85-92 (31)
	Intelligence, Language, Personality, and Attitudinal Factors as Determinants of Academic Performance by Hong Kong University Students	25: 23-42 (19)
	Parent-Child Interaction Variables as Predictors of Academic Attainment	18: 60-67 (4)
	Prediction of Academic Success at the University of Hong Kong	24: 167-183 (15)
	Recognizing Achievement in a Broad Curriculum	29: 35-45 (6)
Adolescents		
	Adolescents' Attitude Toward Sex Education in Hong Kong	27: 78-90 (25)
	Do Schools Make a Difference to Adolescent Conduct Problems and Delinquency?	24: 158-166 (11)
Anxiety		
	Anxiety and Academic Achievement	20: 142-153 (23)
Assessment		
	Assessment for Teaching	20: 92-99 (7)
	Changes in Assessment and Examinations in Scotland	26: 37-45 (0)
	Educational Administration Theory Development Into the 1980's: A Practical Academic's Assessment	25: 161-176 (100)
	The Effect on an Individualised Science Instruction Programme on Attitudes: A Procrustes Assessment of Change	23: 62-74 (19)
	Ensuring Greater Success in Paper Feedback-giving: An Experience With a Writing Course	33: 99-103 (10)
	A Matter of Scale	19: 58-66 (4)
	Oral Assessment: A Case for Continuous Assessment at HKCEE Level	35: 68-73 (22)
	Performance-Based or Personality-Based Teacher Education: Which?	23: 20-26 (18)
	Psychological Assessment and the Mentally Retarded Child	20: 136-141 (0)
	TTRA in Perspective	34: 4-8 (14)
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	Adolescents' Attitude Toward Sex Education in Hong Kong	27: 78-90 (25)
	Children's Attitudes Towards Learning With Computers	25: 114-123 (5)
	The Effect on an Individualised Science Instruction Programme on Attitudes: A Procrustes Assessment of Change	23: 62-74 (19)
	English Teachers' Attitudes: Comparison Between the Veteran and the Novice	35: 37-42 (5)
	Improving Teachers' Attitudes Toward Minority-Groups Students: An Experiential Approach to Multicultural Inservice	25: 177-183 (11)

	Intelligence, Language, Personality, and Attitudinal Factors as Determinants of Academic Performance by Hong Kong University Students	25: 23-42 (19)
	Language and Attitudes in the Transitional Period of Hong Kong	37: 39-45 (21)
	Social Studies - Should We Be Teaching Knowledge or Attitudes	16: 62-66 (0)
	The Study of Linguistic Attitudes and Its Relevance for the English Teacher	22: 52-86 (0)
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	Aggressive Behaviour in Young Pupils: An Intervention Package	31: 83-90 (11)
	Behavioural Measurement and Unruly Behaviour in Hong Kong Schools	30: 108-115 (11)
	Do Schools Make a Difference to Adolescent Conduct Problems and Delinquency?	24: 158-166 (11)
	The Ethnographic Approach to Studying Schools and Classrooms	28: 49-60 (26)
	Sex Differences in Problem Behaviour and the Self-Concept: An Investigation of Hong Kong Junior Secondary School Students	37: 11-19 (26)
Bilingual Education		
	Cognitive and Affective Costs of Bilingual Education: A Look at the Hong Kong Experience	25: 74-80 (14)
	Issues and Problems of Bilingual Education	23: 27-37 (19)
Biology		
	The Biological Basis of Personality	25: 10-17 (10)
	Cultivation of Straw Mushrooms in School Laboratories	19: 117-124 (0)
	Education and Intelligence: The Biological Basis of Mental Ability	21: 28-40 (0)
	Modern Developments in Biological Education	11: 33-36 (0)
	Planning the Biology Curriculum for the Future	20: 100-118 (9)
	Social Biology in School Curriculum	14: 52-57 (14)
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	Business Students' Preferences in Learning Situations	35: 80-85 (10)
	More Effective Business Teaching With Case Studies	31: 59-61 (5)
	Reaching Beyond the Bounds of Understanding: Creative Teaching Strategies for Hong Kong Business Students	32: 76-81 (10)
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	Cantonese as Spoken in Hong Kong	10: 63-66 (0)
	Short Notes on Cantonese Tones	1: 28-31 (0)
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	Chauvinism and Realism in a Global Community	17: 108-114 (0)
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	Children's Abilities in Formal Reasoning and Implications for Science Learning	37: 58-75 (25)
	Children's Attitudes Towards Learning With Computers	25: 114-123 (5)
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	Concept-Development Within the Children's Reading Laboratory Framework	23: 99-111 (9)
	Designing Dictionaries for Children	26: 74-82 (9)
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	Are Anglo-Australian Students Becoming the New Self-Deprived in Comparison With Ethnics?	28: 87-108 (28)
	A Case Study on Preschool Physical Education Curriculum in Zhuhai, China: Implications for Preschool Physical Education Reform in Hong Kong and Macau	37: 114-122 (42)
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	Changes in Assessment and Examinations in Scotland	26: 37-45 (0)
	Chinese Immigrants and Citizens in Canada	21: 12-25 (12)
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	Implications of Decentralization: The Case of Basic Education in China	33: 24-32 (18)
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	The Role of the University Department of Education in a Developing Country	19: 130-134 (0)
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	Social Studies - Should We Be Teaching Knowledge or Attitudes	16: 62-66 (0)
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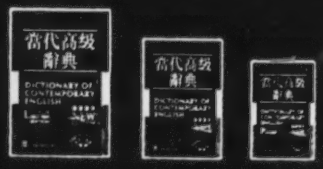

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